The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1888.

The Week.

THE resolution to postpone the Direct-Tax Refunding Bill till next December, adopted unanimously by the Democratic caucus of the House, is a triumph for the opponents of the measure. The bill is not likely to gain friends during the interval, and if it be true that one of the main purposes of it was to reduce the inflammation in the public finances without removing the cause—*i. e.*, to empty the Treasury without cutting down the taxes—that bad motive will no longer operate to defeat or retard action on the Tax and Tariff Reduction Bill. There is reason to believe that the greatest impelling force behind the Direct-Tax Bill was the claim agents' lobby, among whom some hundreds of thousands of dollars would have been distributed if the bill had passed. The postponement of it is an apparent victory for filibustering as a method of carrying on government, but it is evident now that the filibusters have surrendered more than their opponents, because they have agreed that a vote shall be taken on the 11th of December. All that they have secured is delay. If after the lapse of eight months, and after the thorough discussion the measure will receive, a majority of the House still desire to pass the bill, it will be passed without factious opposition. Government by the majority, therefore, has not received any serious detriment. We regard the bill itself as one of the most indefensible and demoralizing that have ever been introduced, since it carries the seeds of the vicious principle that taxes may be imposed by the National Government for distribution among the States. Nothing more demoralizing or unsettling can be imagined than a system of taxation which at once relaxes the watch and guard of the taxpayers on their local governments, and furnishes new sources of supply to the tax-eaters.

The passage of Mr. Beriah Wilkins's resolution, declaring that in the judgment of the House of Representatives the Secretary of the Treasury has authority under existing law to apply his surplus funds to the purchase and cancellation of United States bonds, is a happy deliverance from a painful situation. The Senate having already passed a similar resolution, all doubts are removed. The Beck amendment providing for the coinage of more silver is left dangling in the air. Entire liberty of action is now in the Secretary's hands, and the onus is likewise upon him to employ his discretion under the law. Of course his ability to purchase bonds hinges on the willingness of the holders to sell. Yet the bond market has undergone considerable change since he stopped buying for the sinking fund last year, there being now forty or fifty millions of bonds in his hands as security for Treasury funds deposited with the banks, the sale of which he can force by calling in the deposits. Altogether, the financial situation is much relieved by the fortunate action of the House, but the relief is only temporary. It cannot be regarded as a substitute for a reduction of taxation and a stoppage of the inflow of money. The purchase of bonds at any fair price has its limits, and we must remember that many months must elapse before any tax-reduction bill can become effective, and that the surplus at the beginning of the present month was upwards of $104,000,000.

The " great divide," as the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill has long been called, came before the House on Monday. It calls for nearly twenty millions of dollars, and yet its promoters sought to put it through without debate under a suspension of the rules. They easily secured a majority, but happily failed by many votes of the necessary two-thirds, and the measure will now have to take its chances later in the session, after the Tariff Bill is disposed of. The worst feature of this matter is, that we seem to make no progress towards a satisfactory basis of operations as time passes. President Arthur's veto in 1882 of a bill appropriating nearly $19,000,000 called a temporary halt, but its influence is no longer felt, and apparently nothing short of another veto will check the wild extravagance of the logrollers.

The claim agents and demagogues at Washington have been chuckling over the theory that Mr. Cleveland would not dare to veto any of their pension schemes this year, in view of his probable candidacy for reëlection. The three vetoes of private pension bills sent in on Monday will open their eyes. Such a notification that Congressional measures will still be subjected to Executive scrutiny is as necessary as it is welcome.

The appointment by the President of Mr. Lovering as United States Marshal for Massachusetts is a victory for the spoilsmen of the Democratic party, which is the more notable because it is achieved in the State where Mr. Cleveland has in the past done most for the cause of civil-service reform. The term of the incumbent, Gen. Banks, expired some weeks ago, and ever since then a vigorous contest has been going on as to the succession. Gen. Banks had been so careless in his management of the office that he did not deserve reappointment, and the only question was as to what sort of a Democrat should be selected. An excellent representative of the progressive element was brought forward, and, on the other hand, Mr. Lovering, who has always been an open opponent of civil-service reform, and was nominated for Governor last fall at the instance of the odious Democratic ring in Boston because he was an unblushing spoilsman. The President hesitated long, but finally surrendered to the men who have been his bitterest enemies in everything that has been best in his career at Washington.

Mr. Lowell's address at Steinway Hall on Friday night, before one of the most intelligent and attentive audiences we have ever seen in New York, was a rare and impressive occasion. It has come to pass—why or wherefore we cannot stop to discuss here—that we have not just now a single man in public life who ever makes a speech on what we may call the philosophy of politics, as distinguished from practical questions of legislation, or whose utterances, if reported, are read with any care or interest by anybody, or remembered for one hour after they are read. In this respect the descent from the days of Clay, and Calhoun, and Webster, and Wright, and Everett, and Seward, and Sumner is tremendous. Mr. Lowell is, in truth, to-day almost the only American whose talk about politics, using the term in its best sense, is eagerly looked for, all over the English-speaking world, and put away in men's libraries beside the great masterpieces of thought and expression. The address to the Reform Club on Friday was worthy of him when at his best. It would have been difficult for any master of English this century has seen to have crowded into one hour and ten minutes so much apt historical reminiscence, so much shrewd observation, and so much acute analysis of the phenomena, both bad and good, of national life. What was better than all was, that there ran through every sentence a vein of that high morality and courageous hopefulness, and of that supreme confidence that, in the long run, the better cause will have the upper hand, which, to men who are worth much either to home or country, always sounds like a trumpet blast. Every one who listened to him, and, above all, those who have to deal with the unspeakable meannesses and trivialities of factional politics, must have been grateful for being raised even for one brief hour into the pure air and clear light which surround the things that ought to be.

Biddeford is a Maine manufacturing town whose foreign-born population, chiefly Irish and French Canadians, numbered more than a third of the whole number at the last census. A new city government was recently chosen, and the distribution of the " patronage" followed. As always happens in such cases, there was great dissatisfaction, but one peculiar element entered into the case, which was stated with the utmost frankness by an Alderman at a meeting of the City Council. " Fifteen thousand dollars," he said, " will be paid in salaries by the city this year, and how is that sum divided? The Irish get $725, the French $625, a total of $1,350 which the Catholics are paid, to $13,650 which the Protestants receive." He "arraigned" the Mayor for not exerting more of his influence to secure offices for his Catholic supporters, and complained that at

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a final caucus he (the Alderman) had been ignored and "Americans got $325 in salaried offices, the French Canadians $110, and the Irish got left." All this seems very absurd, of course; yet what is it but the carrying out to its logical conclusion of what Mr. Lowell calls "the geographical allotment of patronage, as if ability were dependent, like wheat, upon the soil"? When Congress enacts that appointments to the Federal service shall be allotted among the States according to their respective populations, it is not strange that Biddeford Aldermen should insist upon dividing municipal offices according to race and church lines.

The operation of the Soldiers' Exemption Act in Massachusetts—the act which exempts veterans from competitive examination for appointments in the civil service—has been to reduce the number of veterans actually appointed about 75 per cent. The *Civil-Service Record* shows that under the law as it stood before the exemption was passed, forty-nine veterans were appointed to desirable positions during the preceding year. They then had, as they have always had, a preference among candidates who passed an equally good examination. During the six months since they were exempted from competitive examination only sixteen have received appointments, and all but four of these have been in the prison service, "where, owing to the small pay and the necessity of residence in the institution, it was impossible to get enough competitors to make an eligible list." The reason for this change in the fortunes of the veterans as applicants for appointments is, that the soldiers generally believe that the Civil-Service Law is broken down, and that appointments are to be secured now only by "influence." Consequently, fewer veterans apply for examination than formerly. Hence it comes to pass that only one soldier gets a position, and that a very undesirable one, where three or four were successful under the old law. Of course this was the result that the spoilsmen aimed at in the beginning. They wanted to whittle the law away by piecemeal, and to spread abroad the idea that the merit system was no longer in force. It was never any part of their plan to put soldiers in office.

The most significant feature of the Oregon Republican State Convention last week, like that of the Arkansas Convention the day before, was the character of the man who was put to the front as the representative of the party. In Arkansas it was the notorious carpet-bagger, "Pow" Clayton; in Oregon, it was George H. Williams, whose reputation as Grant's Attorney-General was so bad that the Senate would not confirm him as Chief Justice. As fourteen years have passed since that time, it is worth while to refresh the public memory by recalling the meeting of the Bar Association of this city, January 6, 1874, which resolved that it is the "deliberate conviction" of the Association that "the nomination by the Executive of George H. Williams to be the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States disappoints the just expectations of the legal profession, and does not deserve the approval of the people, for the reason that the candidate proposed is wanting in those qualifications of intellect, experience, and reputation which are indispensable to uphold the dignity of the highest national court, and to maintain general respect for the law in the person of the officer who presides over its administration."

The Iowa Legislature adjourned last week, and, as so often happens under such circumstances, the papers say that "the State feels greatly relieved." The feeling is more profound than usual, however, because the Iowa Legislature was an unusually dangerous body. The House of Representatives particularly was controlled by demagogues, who succeeded in rushing through it the most fantastic measures regarding the management of railroads. Fortunately the Senate proved what the national Senate has ceased to be—a check and balance-wheel—and, to quote the words of the leading Republican paper at the capital, "has resisted and defeated more wild and hoodlum legislation than ever had been proposed in any American State before." But the Senate was not able to defeat all the measures that ought to have been beaten. One of the worst that got through was a law making the Railroad Commissioners elective instead of appointive, and thus leaving the constitution of this most important body to be settled by the intrigues and trades of a political convention. A bill was passed prohibiting discriminations in freight charges, and requiring railroad companies to post schedules of their rates, which must not exceed a maximum fixed by the Commission. This is a measure of great importance, the working of which will depend largely upon the character of the men chosen as Railroad Commissioners.

Mr. Simon Sterne, in the last number of the *Financial Chronicle* of this city, advocates the plan propounded in the *Nation* as long ago as 1883 for placing legal restrictions on the striking power of certain classes of quasi-public employees, apropos of the telegraphers' strike then pending. We then said (July 19, 1883), after pointing out the important part played by the telegraph in the life of modern nations, and the immense loss caused by its sudden stoppage:

> "Now, the question whether any body of men ought to be allowed for any purpose to inflict this loss and inconvenience on the public, is one of which the growing complexity of modern society will soon compel a peremptory settlement. A few years ago there was a strike of engine-drivers on one of the Massachusetts railroads, and they actually undertook to carry it out by abandoning trains filled with passengers in the open country, remote from a station. A repetition of this device was promptly prevented by penal legislation, so that every locomotive engineer in Massachusetts now holds his place with the understanding that if he abandons his engine on the road for any reason, he goes to jail. A similar theory of the relation of other railroad employees to the public led to the railroad strikes in 1877 and the horrible resulting riots, with enormous loss to the country. If anything of the kind were attempted again, assuredly some stringent measures for its prevention would be resorted to. The truth is that a society like ours, and like all commercial nations, has become so dependent on the post-office, the railroads, and the telegraph, that they may be said to stand to it in the relation of the nerves to the human body. The loss even for a week of any one of them means partial paralysis. The loss of all three would mean a total deprivation, for a longer or shorter period, of nearly everything which the community most values. It would mean a suspension of business and social relations equal to that caused by a hostile invasion, barring the terror and bloodshed. It is consequently something to which no country will long allow itself to remain exposed. It cannot allow strikes of employees in these great public services, any more than it can allow the corporations themselves to refuse to carry on their business as a means of extracting what they think fair rates of transportation. No Legislature would permit this, and one or two more experiences like the railroad strike will cause every Legislature to take measures against the other. Telegraphers, railroad men, post-office clerks, and policemen fill places in modern society very like that of soldiers. In fact, they together do for society what soldiers used to do. They enable every man to come and go freely on his lawful occasions, and transact his lawful business without let or hindrance."

Everything which has since happened in the matter of railroad strikes gives ample confirmation to this view. It is becoming plainer and plainer to every rational observer that the transportation service of the country cannot be carried on under the present mode of running railroads. There is, in fact, to anybody who knows anything of human nature and human affairs, something positively ludicrous in the present attempt to manage great armies of employees on extensive lines of traffic under the inspection of Powderlys and Arthurs. We recognize its absurdity in the case of the army and navy. If it were proposed that every military post or man-of-war should have a "General Worthy Foreman" to give advice to the soldiers or sailors when to refuse to do duty, and what conditions to make before obeying orders, the whole civilized world would indulge in a shout of laughter. It is not, however, necessary to go to the army or navy for an illustration of the absurdity of our present system. The merchant service suffices for the purpose. Sailors are not compelled to ship in any crew, but when they do, and sign articles, they have to do their duty to the end of the voyage. They are not allowed to strike. If they attempt to strike, it is called mutiny, and treated as a criminal offence which sends them to jail. In order to see the reasonableness of all this, one has only to suppose the engineers and firemen of an Atlantic steamer to announce to the captain, when two days out from New York, that they were "tired," and would work no more, or would only work long enough to carry the ship into Halifax; or the cook to announce that he would do no more cooking unless the steward or waiters were dismissed on the spot; or the sailors to say that, owing to the discovery of goods of a boycotted firm in the hold, they would neither reef, steer, nor look out during the remainder of the voyage. The immemorial law and custom of the sea will undoubtedly some day have to be applied to the work of transportation on land. Engineers and firemen and switchmen will have to enlist or sign articles agreeing to do certain duty, and obey

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lawful orders for a certain period, under pains and penalties.

Mr. Chauncey Depew is reported in the Philadelphia *Press* as having stated that he "knew, of his own personal knowledge, where several Blaine Irish clubs disbanded in consequence of Mr. Burchard's alliterative remark, and went over to Cleveland." This is very interesting, if true, because it is the first time that any one has come forward in these three years, in spite of repeated challenges, to say either that he himself changed his vote in consequence of Burchard's remark, or knew of any one else who had done so. The nearest we have ever come to the fact, if fact it be, has been in hearing from some one that he knew some one else who "probably" or "doubtless" knew of somebody whom Burchard had driven away from Blaine. But here is Mr. Depew, who says that he knows, "of his own personal knowledge," not only of individuals, but "several clubs," who deserted Blaine in a body because they did not like what Burchard said. We trust Mr. Depew will, in the interest of historical truth, give us the names and locality of some of these clubs, so that the matter can be inquired into. We would not question his reports if we did not know, from his unfortunate experience about the Dutch tariff, that he is a trifle credulous in political matters. He allowed some unscrupulous Dutch "business man" to stuff him with a story last summer about ruinous changes in the Dutch tariff, or, as he called it, the passage of a "free-trade law," and not only never took the trouble to verify it, but repeated it to a reporter nine months later, as having some bearing on our present tariff controversy. We trust some impecunious "Irish club" has not been imposing on him in this case from sordid motives.

That the negroes are making substantial material progress is proved by the report of the Comptroller-General of Georgia, which shows that the amount of property upon which they paid taxes rose from five millions in 1879 to nine millions in 1887. This is an average increase of ten per cent. a year, whereas the property of the white people increased only five per cent. a year during the same period. It is noteworthy that the growing prosperity of the negroes in the South dates from the time when they ceased to depend upon the Government, and learned that the black man, like the white, has his own way to make in the world. One of the most hopeful signs for the race is the evidence that they have mastered this lesson which is found in the adoption, by a recent negro convention at Macon, Ga., of a common-sense resolution declaring that "this Convention regard the acquisition of a good English education, the accumulation of property, and the making and saving of money, the thing to do."

The way in which the Commissioners of Charities and Correction have removed "Fatty" Walsh from the Wardenship of the Tombs is almost as discreditable as his appointment. They have got rid of him by a preamble and resolution which might be used by the Professor of Logic of the College of the City of New York as an example of mixed fallacy and absurdity. Their argument is that inasmuch as Mr. Rhodes, the lawyer, now makes no charge against "Fatty" of an attempt to extort illegal fees, and as the illegal fees which Fatty did extort did not go into his own pocket, *therefore* the Board denies that bad language used by "Fatty" to Mr. Rhodes is a good cause of removal, and accepts his resignation. The meaning of this is, as far as we can make any meaning out of it, that the Board does not mind having the warden of a jail extort money from prisoners and lawyers as long as it cannot be traced directly to his own pocket, as if any "Fatty" of experience ever allowed unlawful gains to be traced directly to his own pocket; but it cannot abide "improper language used in the course of official business." This is irresistibly funny, in view of the fact that these very gentlemen, who are so particular about the speech of their subordinates, put in one of the most important places in their gift an old liquor-dealer, gambler, and pugilist and street rough, to whom the use of foul, profane, and abusive language is probably the most fixed habit of his life. The selection of a "Fatty" for a place requiring chaste and refined expression is about as droll as the selection of a brothel-keeper for the matronship of a reformatory would be. Our advice to the Commissioners is: "When you do these disgraceful things, do them boldly and frankly. If you think a 'Fatty' is fit to govern the jail of a Christian community, do not, after you have put him there, pretend to be disappointed or surprised by his bad behavior. Say frankly that this is just what you expected, and that you do not care five cents what anybody thinks about it."

The Anti-Poverty Society has retired from the Academy of Music, and will hold its meetings henceforth in Cooper Union. The reason given for the change is the necessity of finding a lower rental, the receipts being much less than heretofore, and the work of driving poverty from the face of the earth going on with correspondingly slackened pace. We doubt if the change will prove beneficial to the work. So long as the crusade against poverty was carried on in the Academy, it had an air of "style" about it which was a great incentive to contributions. The "ladies of the Society" were able to sit in boxes and listen to the attacks upon the Catholic Church which Dr. McGlynn made, and they were willing to pay as much for their seats as for the abuse which he poured forth so fluently; but now all the brilliancy has gone out of the meetings. There will be no boxes to sit in, and the musty flavor of McGlynn's harangues will not be lessened by being taken down in a cellar for weekly delivery. It really looks as if poverty would not be abolished this year after all.

The love of seeing other people fight valiantly for noble causes, which pervades the writing of a certain class of literary men with a taste for political philosophy, has been amusingly illustrated in the case of Kingsley, Froude, Carlyle, and Goldwin Smith, who are all fond of "making short work" of obnoxious people at home, and inflicting terrible slaughter on foreign enemies. Froude's delight over Rodney's victory in the West Indies, as compensation for the recent loss of a great empire through gross misgovernment, furnishes one of the most diverting passages in his book on the West Indies. It ought to be read in connection with the comments of Franklin on the same event, in order to see the difference between a real statesman and man of affairs, and a babbling rhetorician who gets his military experiences over a quire of paper and a bottle of ink. This *furor bellicosus* seems in these latter days, as we have more than once pointed out, to have reached some of the scientific men, of whom poor Prof. Tyndall is a fair sample. The thunders against Gladstone which the Professor discharged from the Alps all summer were among the most diverting incidents of the Irish trouble, particularly when he denounced Gladstone for his attacks on the Orangemen, among whom he (the Professor) had "first learned to read his Bible." Now, however, he has apparently reached the conclusion that persuasion is wasted on this wicked old man, and he brings to his notice, by way of warning, the saying of the other sage, Thomas Carlyle, that "A minister who is wicked enough to propose to sever Ireland from England, deserves to have his head brought to the block."

The new tariff on wheat in Germany is equal to $1.19 per 220 pounds, or 30 per cent. ad valorem. The object of it is to exclude American wheat from South Germany, and to compel Bavaria, Baden, and the Rhine country to buy Prussian wheat exclusively. But it is much cheaper to supply the South German people with American wheat from London. Moreover, the South Germans are accustomed to American wheat; they even like it better than Prussian wheat. On the other hand, Prussian wheat is very conveniently situated for the English market, and very inconveniently for the South German market. Accordingly, a bill has been introduced in the Reichstag to enable North German merchants to export wheat to England, and to import an equivalent amount of American wheat to South Germany free of duty. In order to make the swap easy and frictionless, it is proposed that the exporter of North German wheat shall have the right to sell his permits of importation just as he would sell a bill of exchange. The drollery of all this circumlocution, by which the consumer is sacrificed to the producer, has not penetrated the German mind to any great extent, but there is much suffering in South Germany in consequence of the deprivation of American supplies of food. Why do not some of our high-tariff men, who are such fast friends of the American farmer, propose a measure of retaliation?

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

WOOL AND MUTTON.

MR. WILLIAM LAWRENCE of Ohio, a great authority among wool-growers, has written a letter to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* to show that what this country wants in order to achieve great prosperity is the very highest tariff on wool that anybody can imagine. Even the tariff of 1867 was not high enough for him. He allows this, indeed, to have been a great and glorious tariff, and even announces the very startling discovery that "sheep-growing as a distinct industry did not begin to acquire great importance until after the wool tariff of March 2, 1867." He neglects to add, what has been a thousand times proved by official statistics, that sheep-growing as a branch of general husbandry began from that very year to decline, so that in ten years the sheep on farms devoted in large part to other crops had shrunk to half their former numbers. Reiteration and reference to official documents on this point seem to have no other effect on the victim of the wool-tariff mania than to cause him to reiterate his historic falsehoods with increased confidence and excitement.

But Mr. Lawrence has a grievance against that tariff. He says: "The act of 1867, however, discriminated in favor of the importation of the long wools of the Cotswold and Down sheep, and, in practical effect, admitted them at a less rate of duty than the clothing wools. The duty was less, because, though that act imposed the same rate of duty on unwashed combing and clothing wools, yet it admitted *washed* combing wool at the same rate of duty as *unwashed*, though on washed clothing [merino] wools the duty was double that on unwashed." And he has nothing to say of the terrible tariff of 1883 except that it "continued the same discrimination."

Now we come to Mr. Lawrence's humor. It is of a rare and racy vintage. The arguments are not rare by any means, but the grouping is irresistible, for the simple reason that it is close and honest, and leaves the harmony and inharmony to manifest themselves in their own full and exuberant force. Thus:

> "We now import annually the long combing wools to the amount of about 5,000,000 pounds, mostly produced in England and Ireland. If Congress would insert in the tariff law six words—'on washed combing wool double duty'—the result would be (1) that in five years or less the long-wool sheep would be increased 20,000,000; (2) we would not import one pound of foreign long-combing wool; (3) we would produce in this country all of such wool we need; (4) the price would be 30 per cent. less than it is now; (5) the wool manufacturers would secure cheaper combing wool; (6) those who consume delaines and other goods made of such wools would procure them 30 per cent. cheaper than now; (7) farmers would raise comparatively fewer cattle than now, but they would produce mutton from Cotswold and Southdown sheep which would more than supply their place; (8) they would make more money in raising such sheep than from cattle, because, in addition to the mutton, wool would afford profit; and (9) the cities, the manufacturing districts, the whole people, would have a greater abundance of cheaper, more healthful, and better meat food than now."

From which it appears that by stopping the importation of 5,000,000 pounds per annum of long wool we shall make a market for the fleeces of 20,000,000 long-wooled sheep. That is to say, each average fleece of long wool weighs a quarter of a pound. It would seem that if the staple is really very long, it must be remarkably thin on the sheep's back.

It appears, too, that the farmers who are to own these 20,000,000 long-woolled yet thinly clad sheep are to sell both wool and mutton a great deal cheaper than they now do, and yet make a profit on the investment which all their close economy and hard work in rearing and shearing, and all the mathematical resources gained at the public schools, fail them now to figure out.

There may be some force in the prediction that an increase in the wool tariff would cheapen mutton. Whatever may have been the cause, mutton was never so cheap in this country, compared with other meats, as in the years following the enactment of the wool tariff of 1867. It was in many of the central wool-growing States a drug in the market. In their mad haste to get rid of the sheep which had just been taken under the Government's protection, the farmers sold what they could to the ranchmen, and then turned to the butchers. Those persons who liked it feasted and surfeited on the "wholesome food." But the trouble is that a great many people cannot eat it. Hence the mutton market is limited and more easily glutted than that of other meats.

Within the limit thus fixed, the long-wooled mutton sheep pay the best now, in the Western States, and the wool-growers are turning their attention that way. "Breed for mutton, and let the wool take care of itself," is the maxim laid down by a practical grower of long-woolled sheep, in the *Iowa Homestead* for April 6, and he adds that "Recent low prices have tended to increase its use, and there is reason to believe that mutton may yet rank alongside of beef." He is apparently unconscious of the fact, stated by Mr. Lawrence, that the long-woolled mutton sheep have less "protection" than the merinos—another illustration of the rule that the more protection sheep have, the worse they thrive and the less they pay.

Since 1824 the American people have tried every possible experiment in the way of clothing themselves with wool and feeding themselves with mutton, except the simple one of letting each man pay for his wool and his clothing and his mutton exactly what they are worth, without bonus, bounty, or subsidy to any other man. All the experiments have been unsatisfactory. Even that of 1867, which the wool-growers and manufacturers united in asking, Mr. Lawrence now tells us was a mistake. If all these experiments, running through half a century, have turned out badly, would it not be philosophical to try the other one, and see what the effect would be of putting the production and consumption of wool and mutton on the same basis as that of hides and beef? The ancient Egyptians considered the ox a more sacred animal than the sheep. We have followed the opposite superstition, and have regarded the sheep as the only domestic animal worthy of veneration. Let us put them on an equality for once, and see what the effect will be upon the industry and morals of the community.

LONG AND SHORT HAUL IN ENGLAND.

THE contest over the Railway and Canal Traffic Bill in England is, in some respects, not unlike that over the Inter-State Commerce Law in America a year ago. The bill, as framed by the Government, contained a clause substantially like our own short-haul clause in its effects; that is to say, it threw upon the railroad companies the necessity of proving special circumstances and conditions if they wished to maintain their present local discriminations. The representatives of the agricultural interests went further, and wished to make a hard-and-fast prohibition to which there should be no exceptions. They have succeeded in carrying an amendment to that effect in the House of Lords.

The case generally comes up in forms like this. American meat can be shipped either from New York to London by direct steamer, or from New York to Liverpool or Glasgow, and thence by rail to London. But in order to secure any share of this traffic, the railroads have to content themselves with very low rates—no higher, in fact, than the difference between the current steamship rates from American ports to London, and those for which steamships are willing to carry the same article to Liverpool or Glasgow. This leaves the railroad companies a very narrow margin. To secure this foreign business, they are obliged to make rates which would be ruinous if applied to their whole business. The same principles hold good in their trade with France. If French hops can be brought to London by direct steamer, the railroad from Folkestone to London can charge only the *difference* between the steamship rates from France to London and from France to Folkestone. The consequence has been that French hops were charged very much less from Folkestone to London than English hops had to pay from intermediate points.

These are cases where discrimination would not be prohibited by the American law, as interpreted by the Commission. The lower through rate is justified, and, in one sense at least, rendered necessary, by water competition. But there are several reasons why English shippers would not be ready to accept such an interpretation of the law. In the first place, it would make it almost a dead letter; at any rate, it would limit its application much more than it does with us. Two-fifths of the stations in England are affected by water competition, and it is probable that ninety-nine-one-hundredths of the local preferences are more or less directly due to that cause. A statute which could not reach these cases would fail of the object for which it was designed. Secondly, these preferences in favor of markets which can be reached by water are specially obnoxious to the English shippers, because they seem expressly designed to favor the foreign producer. If the Scotch cattle-raiser has to pay twice as much as his American competitor for precisely the same service, he can make a strong appeal for legislative aid on

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

grounds of national feeling. "Not merely has the home producer no protection," he can say, "but the railroads are allowed to give the foreigner a virtual bounty, by doing the same service for him at lower rates than they will for us." As an appeal to the sentiment of Parliament, this argument has much force; but it is still more important as appealing pretty directly to the pockets of many members of the House of Lords. Depending as they do upon their rents for so much of their income, they cannot be expected to acquiesce in a system of railroad charges which will have the effect of reducing agricultural land values. This is the reason why the House of Lords is disposed to deal with this matter more severely than the House of Commons. The English peer is dependent upon his land values as much as the Iowa farmer, and each hopes that strict railroad regulation may be the means of bettering his condition.

There is one other respect in which the English railroads are less favorably situated than ours for resisting legislation of this kind. The community has less to fear from the indirect results of its own action. In America, if anything interferes with railroad profits, it checks railroad building. The people who have passed the laws, find that they suffer so much from loss of facilities that it more than offsets what they gain by lower rates; and the stringent part of the law is either repealed or allowed to fall into "innocuous desuetude." But the English roads have no such defence. England's railroad system has been virtually complete for many years past. The roads are sure of a considerable amount of paying business, law or no law. If the statute should have the effect of reducing dividends, the stockholders would grumble; but no law is likely to be overthrown by grumbling, even when the grumbler carries his art to that pitch which the English capitalist has attained.

All things considered, it looks as though England would soon have a statute more stringent than our own Inter-State Commerce Act. Whether it will be successfully enforced is another question. A sweeping measure of this kind is apt to leave room for technical exceptions, of which the railroad companies will be sure to take advantage to the very utmost. If such a law is passed, we do not envy the first shippers who try to secure their rights under it.

THE "SPOILS" IN FRANCE.

It is impossible to blame the French voters who have just given Boulanger such a sweeping majority for being very much disgusted with the existing régime. The Chambers have been going steadily from bad to worse. They do nothing but form and reform combinations for the overthrow of successive ministries, in full view of the fact that the quality of the men who consent to take office under them is steadily declining, that all healthy legislation has thus been made impossible, and that it is with the greatest difficulty that the appropriations necessary for the maintenance of the Government and the support of the public credit are secured.

During the last six months, too, they have added a new horror to the situation by introducing the practice of expelling the President of the republic from office before the end of his term, by boycotting him, or, in other words, by refusing to form a Cabinet for him. Of course there was an appearance of excuse for this in the fact that the President's son-in-law had opened a sort of office for jobbing Government patronage and decorations in the Presidential mansion; but the truth was that he simply did on a great scale what the bulk of the Deputies and Senators were doing on a small one, and this brings us to the root of the trouble, which is neither more nor less than "spoils." The French republic is to-day threatened with a military dictatorship simply because there are not "offices enough to go round," as our phrase is; or, in other words, because the attempt to secure parliamentary majorities by means of executive patronage has been tried and has failed miserably.

If we had tried the same experiment—that is, if the President had been obliged to choose his Cabinet from Congress in the English fashion, and the members of it had been made responsible to Congress, and had been compelled to resign under adverse votes of either house—the breakdown of the system in this country would have been as complete as it has been in France. It is not the superior virtue or capacity of our legislators which has saved us, but the assured independence of the Executive. For the disease which is destroying free government in France is as virulent here in the political class as it is there, but is kept under by the fortunate circumstances of the country. In fact, the love of "spoils" seems to be the disease of modern democracy, the ravages of which are felt everywhere, like the old leprosy of the East, though in some places less than others. Our Executive is constantly urged, and in some degree successfully urged, to do what the French Executive has tried to do, and failed, viz., create majorities for the Government by the distribution of patronage among the members. The pressure on our Executive has not been so great as that on the French Executive, because it is not placed in the power of the Legislature in the same degree as the French Executive; but the pressure exists, is as constant as in France, and exercises fully as corrupting and degrading an influence on the political class.

The best political observers in France have, for fully ten years — that is, ever since the Republicans got fairly into power—foreseen clearly the collapse which we are witnessing to-day. They knew well that the practice of trying to make majorities by distributing offices must, sooner or later, break down through the impossibility of providing enough offices to satisfy all claimants. The crisis has been postponed through a steady increase in the number of Government places, which has now become so great that a recent writer has observed, jestingly, that all France will soon be in the Government service, so that there will be nobody left to provide salaries for the officials. But it had to come, sooner or later, and, as in all political crises in France, the remedy appears not in the shape of an agitation for the reform of the civil service, but in that of a man on horseback with big spurs and a sabre.

The French experience is exactly like our own. When we give an office to one man to satisfy "claims," we disappoint ten others who think their claims are just as good as his. When the supply of offices gives out, the pressure of the unsatisfied claimants continues as strong as ever, and if an increase of places be impossible, "rotation" has to be resorted to—that is, the ins have to be dismissed to give the outs a turn at the public crib. Every one of these changes makes ten men discontented for the one whom it makes happy, and, what is still worse, it not only presents "politics" in the shape of a lottery full of small prizes to tens of thousands of the young, the shiftless, the unfortunate, but it diffuses through the industrious, the sober-minded, and the frugal a profound distrust of and disgust with the machinery of government.

We are more happily situated than the French. We have a better constitution, and we have what is, perhaps, better than the best constitution—strong political traditions, and a deeply rooted habit of government by persuasion. But the "spoils disease" is one which no political constitution can in the long run resist, any more than a physical constitution can in the long run resist incessant dram-drinking. Cocktails tell on some livers and kidneys much earlier than on others, but they tell on all sooner or later. Successful government by spoils is, in the present state of human nature, not possible for an indefinite period by any branch of the human family. Those who are most troubled by the difficulties which our immense accretions of untrained foreigners are introducing into our industrial life would do well to consider what the effect on them of open and undisguised government by bribery—for office-jobbing is simply bribery with the public money—is likely to be when they become fully acquainted with the possibilities which American politics opens up to men to whom politics is business, and who occupy themselves with public affairs as they would with pork-packing or coal mining—for revenue only.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

Mr. Matthew Arnold's sudden death on Sunday will be a painful surprise to the whole English-speaking world. There was probably no name in current English literature better known to the present generation than his. When he made his first appearance, years ago, he had the advantage of being the son of a father who had been admired and respected as few Englishmen of this century had been, and he very speedily established claims of his own to distinction of a widely different sort. His father was a very orthodox Churchman—so

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

much so that he found it impossible to receive Unitarian pupils as such at Rugby, and he was haunted all his life long with the dream of a Church establishment which should really and truly include and be the State.

Matthew Arnold speedily cast off these traditions. He made his début in the world of letters as a poet, and it is as a poet if at all that he achieved enduring fame. But he is best known to the world at large as the apostle of pure criticism. Thousands have read his 'Culture and Anarchy' and 'Literature and Dogma' for ten who are familiar with his poems. His attacks on British Philistinism in Church and State were, in fact, the delight of the reading world twenty years ago, both from their audacity and the attractiveness of their style. It was a style with many tricks and catchwords, and considerably clarified by iteration, but it had a charm of its own from which very few at first, before it had become too familiar, could escape. No living author has, in truth, furnished a greater number of "familiar quotations" to the mob of writers and orators. His "sweetness and light," and "stream of tendency," and "something not ourselves that makes for righteousness," and his classifications of Hebrews, and Hellenists, and Philistines, are now so trite that we find it difficult to realize that twenty-five years ago nobody knew anything about them. His plan of literary construction was, in fact, that of the preacher. He was apt to take a text from some author, sacred or profane, as the keynote of his composition, and bring the reader back to it at frequent intervals, or flash it like a lantern every now and then on the dark places of his thesis. The tone of all his essays is essentially a pulpit tone. He preaches salvation, if not from eternal damnation, from vulgarity, from dulness, from gross tastes and gross pleasures, from ignorance, and blindness to the true joys of life.

What brought him most of his popularity as an essayist and social philosopher was undoubtedly his opportuneness. He appeared just as John Stuart Mill, Darwin, Tyndall, and Huxley had taken hold of the young men, and destroyed their interest in the theological discussions which perturbed the previous generation, without furnishing them with anything very solid in the nature of a solution of the moral problem of the universe. To tens of thousands who could not worship science, and had but a poor head for facts of any kind, and yet felt that they must give up their old religious belief, it seemed for a moment as if Arnold had hit on a way of providing something which would take the place of a creed, and cultivate the faculty of reverence, and keep alive the faith in the final triumph of righteousness. Not the least recommendation of his gospel—if gospel it could be called—was that it seemed especially intended for university men, and what may be called the world of culture. In fact, it made the work of grace just a little difficult in anybody whose educational opportunities had been at all limited.

In recent years Mr. Arnold has written a great deal on political questions, but it cannot be said that his excursions in this field were happy or successful. He was wanting in the faculty known as the political sense, the sense of the practicable, without which no man can philosophize on questions of government with any advantage to himself or others. He, therefore, always appeared in an unfavorable light when he came down from the upper air of social and religious speculation in which he usually dwelt, to criticise the politicians and politics of his time. His coming to America, too, as a lecturer was a mistake, and added nothing to his fame. He had no preparation for that sort of work, and was evidently very ignorant of the special needs of the audiences for which he sought, and very ill fitted to encounter the sort of treatment which American newspapers deal out to literary and scientific men who do not please their taste—something which he confesses somewhat pathetically in that last article of his on American civilization which has attracted so much attention in this country. But, even after setting apart his fame as a poet, which will last as long as the English language endures, it must be admitted that he has done some work as a preacher the effects of which are already felt by many who have never read his essays, and will probably continue to be felt long after the essays have ceased to be read. He had no disciples, and probably nobody could be found who ever attempted to live by him or under him; but he did undoubtedly, in many minds, although imperceptibly, exalt the duty of "seeing clear and thinking straight," and help many towards higher pleasures than those of the senses, and foster that interest in "the things of the spirit" which the very triumphs of the modern world tend to abate or extinguish. He was, in short, a man who, however slight the mark he may have left on the outward course of human affairs, has done well for his day and generation, in helping to keep alive the faith of the race in the nobler possibilities of human existence.

THE MUTATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL.

THERE have been no less than five official prints of the "Chace" Copyright Bill, besides three unofficial texts, the latter being of interest and value in attempting to trace the various changes which have been proposed and accepted. To comprehend rightly these important alterations, it is necessary to know the contents of the original bill, as it was presented to the Senate January 21, 1886. This bill, numbered S. 1178, is four pages in length, notwithstanding that two of its paragraphs (containing but thirty-five words) are virtually sufficient to extend to foreign writers the protection now enjoyed by native authors. But this length is necessary (1) to express the special requisitions demanded of the foreign author in order that he may obtain a copyright, and (2) to set out certain restrictions put upon such copyright in his case. The present copyright law is extended to include the works of foreign authors by expunging from the Revised Statutes such qualifying words as "citizen of the United States or resident therein," and by repealing the section (4971) which legalizes the present disgraceful piracy of works of literature and art. This much of the original bill has remained unchanged (with the exception of some slight verbal alterations) in every subsequent print.

The remaining provisions, briefly set out and, for convenience, arbitrarily numbered, are: (1.) The right reserved to authors by the present law, to dramatize or translate their own works, is limited to apply only to such works as have been copyrighted in the United States. (2.) The prohibition of the importation of surreptitious copies of books, maps, and works of art contained in sections 4964 and 4965 of the Revised Statutes is erased, it being supposed, apparently, that such non-importation is provided for in another section of the bill. (3.) The author or artist who is "not a citizen of the United States or a resident therein," must send to the Librarian of Congress a printed copy of the title of his book or other article, and secure the registration of the same not later than fifteen days subsequent to publication in the country of origin. (4.) Two copies of the "best American edition" of the author's book must be deposited with the same officer, within three months after the date of recording the title above. (5.) In default of such deposit the "copyright shall be held void and of no effect," which is also to be the case (6) if the American publisher, after having printed a foreign book, subsequently abandons its publication. (7.) From the time the copyright of a book is recorded, and during its existence, the importation of the book is prohibited, and (8) officers of customs and postmasters are required to seize and detain all copies of any foreign edition which may be entered at the Custom-house or transmitted to the mails of the United States; and the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General are empowered to make and enforce regulations to prevent such importation. In order that it may be known what books are subject to seizure, it is required of the foreign author (9) that he shall pay one dollar for having his title recorded (double the amount now charged the native author for the same service), this sum to go to defray the expenses of lists of copyrighted articles to be printed each week and distributed to collectors of customs and postmasters, and also to such other persons as may desire them at a cost of not more than $5 per annum. (10.) These lists are to contain, also, "the titles or descriptions of all articles on which copyright shall have expired or become void" (*vide* "5" and "6"), presumably in order to acquaint the above officers with the titles of books which may thereafter be allowed to be imported. (11.) The Librarian of Congress is to prepare the material for the above lists, and (12) is to receive for that service an addition of $1,000 per annum to his salary. (13.) The non-importation clause is not to apply, however, to non-copyrighted foreign books of which translations into English are copyrighted, but only to such translations. (14.) Each volume of a book when published separately, and each number of a periodical, is to be considered an independent publication; and (15) new editions of works heretofore published, containing alterations and additions, are to be deemed capable of being copyrighted. The first, ninth, and eleventh stipulations, relating to the reservation of the right to translate and dramatize, the payment of a fee of $1 for entry of title, and the preparation and distribution of lists of copyright articles, have not been changed in any subsequent issue of the bill.

When presented to the Senate, the bill was referred to the Committee on Patents, and during January and February, 1886, this Committee held various hearings in order to consider the views of the different people whose interests were affected. The result was an amended bill, favorably reported May 21, 1886, and numbered S. 2496, in which the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sixth stipulation enumerated above, the voiding of the author's copyright through abandonment by the publisher, is omitted, and the twelfth provision is changed so as to authorize the Librarian of Congress to employ an additional clerk at $1,200 per year; which two amendments have been included in all later prints of the bill. The foreign author, instead of being allowed fifteen days in which to secure the recording of his title, is required to record it not later than the day of publication abroad; and the words "best American edition" in the fourth stipulation are emphasized to "best edition printed in the United States." The important changes, however, occur in the fourteenth provision, where an amendment renders it impossible to obtain a copyright upon the volume or volumes of any work issued subsequent to the time when the bill becomes law, if the first volume has been published previous to that date; and in the fifteenth, altered so as to prohibit the obtaining of copyright upon new editions of works which form part of any series that was in course of publication when the act went into effect. These serious limitations upon the protection which the bill purports to secure to the works of foreign authors still remain a part of the final text of the bill.

As the Forty-ninth Congress took no determinative action upon the Copyright Bill, it was presented anew in the first session of the Fiftieth Congress, December 12, 1887, and again referred to the Committee on Patents. This third print (numbered S. 554) contained no alterations of importance. The date of enforcement, however, is advanced one year to July 1, 1888.

Shortly after this second introduction of the bill the American Publishers' Copyright League was organized with a view to coöperation with the Authors' Copyright League already established. The result of various conferences between these two associations was set out in an unofficial fourth edition of the bill (which may be designated as 554b), printed for the purpose of suggesting certain amendments to Senator Chace and securing his consent to them, as well as the approval of the representatives of the interests of Philadelphia. It is suggested in this proposed bill, that the prohibition of importation of unauthorized copies, repealed in the original bill, be reinstated according to section 4964 of the Revised Statutes, and that the penalty imposed in that section upon unauthorized reprinting, publishing, or importation, be also attached to unauthorized dramatization or translation. The third provision, concerning the recording of the title of works by an author not a citizen, is altered to require simply the *delivery* to the Librarian of Congress, or the deposit in the mails within the United States, of the title of a book or description of other articles intended to be copyrighted, and the interval of three months allowed for the deposit of the two copies of a book is done away with by the requirement of such deposit "not later than the day of its publication in the country of its origin." By this alteration, which secured simultaneous deposit of a title-page and copies of a book, the tenth provision (requiring the lists prepared for the use of collectors of customs and postmasters to include the titles of books on which the copyright had become void through a failure to make such a deposit of copies within three months after the delivery of title-page), was rendered nugatory, and that provision ought, therefore, to have been stricken out, but, by oversight, it was allowed to remain, not only in this print, but in every subsequent print except the last. The important amendment suggested in this issue of the bill is the modification of the absolute prohibition of importation to a stipulation of non-importation "unless the consent of the proprietor of such copyright shall first have been obtained in writing, signed in the presence of two or more witnesses," and limiting, accordingly, the seizure of copies to such as are imported without this consent.

But the various alterations suggested failed to receive the concurrence of the Philadelphians, though it is understood that Senator Chace endorsed them; consequently, after another conference held February 3, a fifth print (554c) was made containing further modifications. The thirteenth provision of the original bill, which had been uselessly reworded in the previous print, is now stated in the following concise and intelligent language: "In the case of books in foreign languages, of which translations in English only are copyrighted, the prohibition of importation shall apply only to the translation of the same, and the importation of the books in the original language shall be permitted." The non-importation provision is again modified, or rather extended, importation being prohibited except in the cases specified in section 2505 of the Revised Statutes, and except in the case of "persons purchasing for use and not for sale, who import not more than two copies at any one time." Section 2505 (the free list) allows the importation of books printed twenty years, books, maps, and charts for the use of the United States or for the Library of Congress, or two copies in one invoice, in good faith, for the use of any philosophical, literary, or religious society, or for any society for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for any college, academy, school, or seminary; also, professional books of persons coming into the United States, or books which such persons have purchased abroad for their own use not less than a year previous to arrival. "In each of which cases," however, according to the bill, "the written consent of the proprietor of the copyright, signed in the presence of two witnesses, shall be furnished with each importation." The eighth provision, also, is extended so as to authorize the searching of the belongings of persons arriving in the United States for books not authorized to be imported, and when such are discovered they are to be destroyed instead of being detained as previously provided for. This carefully hedged provision as to importation has been accepted by all parties conferred with, and is incorporated in the final text of the bill.

The provisions numbered "3" and "4" had appeared in the previous editions of the bill as a proviso to section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, but in this print that section is entirely reworded, with resulting important modifications, not only of the original bill, but of the present domestic copyright law, affecting not only the foreign authors but also native authors, artists, and publishers. (1.) The stipulation of the previous print requiring the deposit of copies "not later than the day of publication," is extended to works published originally in the United States; whereas by the present law such deposit of American books is allowed to be made "within ten days from publication thereof." (2.) While the requirement that copies for deposit should be "printed within the United States," had been, in all previous prints of the bill, confined to *books*, the wording is now changed to "book or other article," thereby including maps, charts, dramatic or musical compositions, engravings, and prints, and thus extending the stipulation which had previously been applied only to the works of authors, to the productions of artists as well. (3.) This stipulation of American manufacture, which before had been imposed only upon persons who were not citizens of the United States, is now made a condition binding on any one claiming a copyright, so that our native authors and artists are required to give up the privilege, which is theirs by the present law, of having their books, maps, or engravings made abroad if they choose (provided, of course, that they submit to the extortion of one-fourth of the value of their property by the tariff tax), and are compelled to print their works in the United States or forfeit their copyright entirely.

These important concessions having been agreed to upon the part of the authors and publishers (the artists do not seem to have been consulted), an effort was made to secure for the text suggested the adhesion of the typographers. But only the typographical unions of Cambridge would agree to support the bill, those of New York hesitating, and the unions of Philadelphia refusing. The result was yet another edition of the bill (554d), embodying the "typographical amendment"—the only alteration in the text of the bill—which requires that the "two copies of such copyright book or other article" deposited shall be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States." It was this text of the bill which was submitted for consideration at the hearing on March 9, and which the Committee on Patents were urged, with but a single dissentient voice, to report favorably to the Senate.

On March 19 Senator Chace reported an amended bill, which was renumbered S. 554, and which consisted of the text of the print "554d" engrafted upon his original bill, with amendments limiting the prohibition of importation to the term of the copyright, and extending the prohibition of unauthorized dramatization or translations to section 4965 of the Revised Statutes, where it can only apply, if at all, to musical compositions, the remaining part of the section referring only to works of art. The House print of this edition of the bill, numbered H. R. 8715, is the same text freed from typographical errors, and this last print may be accepted as the final text of the "Chace" copyright bill.

FERRY'S BALZAC.

PARIS, April 5, 1888.

ALL great men have had their witnesses who have made us familiar with the incidents of their lives. Very ordinary writers sometimes, and ordinary men, these witnesses render, nevertheless, a great service to literature. M. Gabriel Ferry has been one of these followers of famous people, and has published a book on Alexander Dumas, the father. He has just now given us another under the title of 'Balzac et ses amies.' Nothing that concerns the great author of the "Comédie humaine" is unimportant, and we have found some valuable documents in this volume concerning what may be called the genesis of his work.

Balzac was born in Tours on May 16, 1799. He made very good progress at the College of Vendôme, and afterwards began his law studies in Paris. His father was a very positive, serious man, who had been for a long time employed by the great army contractors. He preserved in his dress the fashions of the Directory, took great care of his person, and had calculated that by such care he could live a hundred years (he died by accident in 1829, at the age of eighty-three). He wished to make a notary of his son, and placed him in a notary's

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

office. Young Balzac had no taste for the law; he had literary tastes. He begged to be allowed to try a literary career for two years. The father consented with reluctance, and Balzac took possession of a room in the Rue Lesdiguières, No. 9, which his mother had chosen for him. He was now free. His family lived in a little country house at Villeparisis; he himself was in the great capital, and in his little garret he began, alas! a tragedy. His subject was Cromwell. "I have chosen the subject of Cromwell," he writes to his sister Laura (September 6, 1819), "because it is the finest in modern history." He worked at it during a whole winter, without other distractions than a few visits to the Jardin des Plantes. In April, 1820, the classical five acts were ended; Balzac read his tragedy before a sort of family council at Villeparisis. The final arbiter was to be a friend of his father, an ex-professor of the Polytechnic School. When the reading was over, the old professor declared solemnly that the author would do well to devote himself to anything he liked except to literature.

The young author was not too much discouraged; he abandoned the tragic muse, and began to write novels. It must be remembered that in 1821 the novel had not become, as it is now, one of the necessities of life. The First Empire had only known the sentimentalities of Mme. Collin; 'Anatole,' a novel by Mme. Sophie Gay, which would now be found unreadable, had given an hour's distraction to Napoleon at Fontainebleau the night before the famous day when he made his adieus to his Guard. The novels of that period are almost childish; under the Restoration, the Vicomte d'Arlincourt wrote a few novels, which are as ridiculous in style as in sentiment. The romantic movement was beginning when Balzac began to write. He composed in 1822 'L'Héritière de Biragues,' 'Le Vicaire des Ardennes,' and some stories now quite forgotten. He signed himself "Horace de Saint-Aubin," "Lord R'hoone," etc. It may be said that in these first essays Balzac simply learned to write; he had not yet received those inspirations which afterwards revealed to him his own genius.

The first inspirer seems to have been a woman, Mme. de Berny, who lived with her husband at Villeparisis. She was a few years older than Balzac, and her physical and moral personality was afterwards to be found in the original and touching type of Mme. de Morsauf in the 'Lys dans la Vallée.' M. de Berny was much older than his wife, impatient, irascible, bad-tempered, selfish; Mme. de Berny was mild and submissive. Her almost maternal friendship was of great use to Balzac; she was to him for a long time a sort of Egeria. Balzac had an exalted affection for her; he wrote: "I was very unhappy in my youth, but Mme. de Berny repaid all with her absolute devotion. . . . I was, indeed, spoiled by this admirable woman." In a letter of 1836, he calls her an angel. When Balzac's parents had sold their little property at Villeparisis, Mme. de Berny had also left the place; she lived in Paris in winter, in summer at St.-Rémy in the department of the Oise. Balzac made many visits to St.-Remy; he wrote there the 'Célibataires' and the 'Curé de Tours.'

Mme. de Berny died in 1836, while Balzac was in Italy. He wrote, on hearing of her death:

"The person I have lost was more than a mother, more than a friend, more than any human creature can be to another. She strengthened me by her words, her actions, her devotion during great trials. If I live it is through her—she was everything to me. Though, for the past two years, sickness and time kept us apart, we were visible to each other; she reacted on me, she was my moral sun. Mme. de Morsauf, of the 'Lys dans la Vallée,' is a pale expression of the least qualities of this person. It is a distant view, for I have a horror of prostituting my own emotions to the public, and of what happens to me nothing will ever be known."

It is somewhat strange that, after such a strong expression of Balzac's sentiments, M. Gabriel Ferry should write in this vein: "Between Balzac and Mme. de Berny did friendship always remain Platonic? This idealism of sentiment is doubtful; evidently, the affection between this young and ardent man and this agreeable woman became love." Such was the delicacy of Balzac on the subject of his affections that Théophile Gautier, alluding to Mme. de Berny, says: "In the course of our intimacy, which lasted from 1836 till his death, Balzac only once spoke to me, in the most tender terms, of an attachment of his early youth, and he even only gave the Christian name of the person, the recollection of whom still, after so many years, brought the tears to his eyes."

Very different from Mme. de Berny was Sophie Gay. She had a salon; she belonged to the society of the Directory and of the Empire, and received the Liberals under the Restoration—Béranger, Benjamin Constant. Her daughter, the beautiful Delphine, recited verses in favor of the Greeks; everybody at that time was Philhellenic. Mme. Gay never had much influence on Balzac; she merely treated him as one of her lions when he became famous.

Celebrity did not arrive in a day. Balzac's father still wished him to go into some business, and in order to please his parent he tried a speculation—he became a publisher, issuing the works of Molière and La Fontaine in compact volumes. He bought a printing-office, and afterwards a type foundry. All his calculations were wrong, and he was on the point of becoming a bankrupt. He sold his establishment, and found that he still had a debt of 120,000 francs. This debt was the great trouble of his life, for he undertook to pay it off by his writings. Pending liquidation he went to Fougères, in Brittany, and wrote the 'Chouans,' one of the most extraordinary of his novels, and the first of his works which he signed with his own name. His life became a struggle for money: he threw himself upon every subject. After 'Catherine de Médicis,' a poor historical study, he wrote his 'Physiology of Marriage,' and the first 'Scènes de la vie privée.' He contributed articles to a number of reviews. "What is life?" said he to a friend who begged him to take some repose; "life is courage."

In 1830 he was able to take a little house during the summer in Touraine, on the Loire, and there he composed the 'Peau de Chagrin,' the book which gave him entrance to the Olympus of literature—a marvellous book, full of the most profound philosophy, illustrating the vanity of all human desires, and describing the malady of our time—the malady of wealth, of money. "No novelist," justly says M. Gabriel Ferry, "had introduced money in fiction in a form so modern, so real, so acute. The novelists of the eighteenth century, and those of the first part of the nineteenth century, had not occupied themselves with the money question." We know that the "question d'argent" has taken, in all modern literature, as important a place as it has in real life. Balzac introduced it, and with what force, not only in the 'Peau de Chagrin,' but in 'Eugénie Grandet,' in the 'Parents Pauvres,' etc.; he well knew the power of Mammon.

Balzac became acquainted at Mme. Sophie Gay's with Junot's widow, the Duchesse d'Abrantès. He certainly borrowed from her salon many of the traits with which he paints the surviving members of the Imperial Army and of the Imperial Administration, the men whom fortune had carried across Europe, and glory intoxicated for a few years, and who had afterwards been plunged into poverty and obscurity. The Memoirs of Mme. d'Abrantès had an immense success in their time. She was a very extravagant person, and in the latter part of her life had no other resources than what she gained with her pen.

Mme. Sand has always been considered as the type of Camille Maupin, a literary woman who reappears from time to time in the "Comédie humaine." She figures in the novel 'Béatrix,' written in 1844, "with her impenetrable eyes, her Isis beauty, more serious than graceful, rather sad and constantly meditating, with long black hair descending in braids on her neck, like the double *bandelettes* of the statues of Memphis." A very different type was the "femme incomprise," a type which Balzac invented under the monarchy of July—the woman full of unsatisfied aspirations, of lofty thoughts not understood in her own narrow circle, a goddess among men, an angel on earth. A whole generation was enamoured of this "femme incomprise" revealed by Balzac. His living model, when he created this type, was a Mme. Carraud, a name which often recurs in his work. She had been educated in the same convent as Balzac's sister Laura. She married an officer of artillery, a good, honest man, without any ambition, who lived in retirement at Frapesle, near Issoudun.

"In the order of the feminine affections of Balzac," says M. Ferry, "Mme. Carraud occupies a very distinct place; she comes between his sister and Mme. de Berny." She was, it seems, a remarkable critic, and Balzac liked to consult her, paying great attention to her observations. He stayed with her for some time every year, either at Angoulême or at Frapesle. In 1832 he was so exhausted by work (he had just finished 'Louis Lambert') that he was afraid of becoming mad, as he had a most acute neuralgia of the head. Mme. Carraud reassured him, and told him that if such a misfortune should happen, she would never abandon him.

In 1831 Balzac had a correspondence with an anonymous person who made observations on his works. After a time the mask was thrown off, and the critic proved to be the Duchess of Castries (who was a Maillé), the sister-in-law of the witty Duke of Fitz-James. Under the Restoration she had been one of the most admired beauties of the court. An accident on the hunting field had made her an invalid; her spine had been hurt, aud she always lay upon a sofa. Balzac became one of her habitués. She was a great coquette, and Balzac interested and amused her. He became a dandy, showed himself at the opera, at the Bois. The Duchess, working on his innate conservative feelings, made of him a stanch Legitimist. He was beginning himself to confound living creatures and the creatures of his own imagination; he writes for instance to Mme. Carraud from Aix, where he was staying at Mme. de Castries's: "I have come here to get much and to get little; much, because I see a graceful, amiable person; little, for she will never love me. . . . She is the finest type of a woman, a better sort of Mme. de Beauseant; but are not all these pretty manners formed at the expense of the soul?" Mme. de Beauseant is one of the types of the "Human Comedy."

The Duchess was to make a journey to Italy with her brother-in-law, Fitz-James; they in-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

vited Balzac to accompany them. He started with them and left them at Geneva—he never said for what reason. Mme. de Castries returned from Italy in 1833. Balzac's visits to her became rarer. He wrote his 'Duchesse de Langeais' in 1834; the Duchesse de Castries affected not to recognize herself in this type, and paid him compliments. Balzac afterwards wrote to a friend: "It took me five years to detach myself, with my tender nature, from a nature of iron, a graceful woman—the Duchess I have spoken of to you—who came to me under an incognito, which, to do her justice, she abandoned when I asked her to do so. . . . This liaison, which, be assured, remained, by the will of this woman, most irreproachable, proved one of the great troubles of my life. . . . I alone know all there was in the 'Duchesse de Langeais.'"

AURELIO SAFFI.

BOLOGNA, March, 1888.

JUST as we remember him thirty years ago, save that his hair is white, and the tall, slim form is more bent than then, is Aurelio Saffi to-day. The type of an Italian scholar, book-lover, and thinker by nature, revolutionist by force of circumstances, conspirator through necessity, after devoting his youth and manhood to helping Mazzini create a country, he has dedicated the last fifteen years to narrating the life, and to expounding the work and writings, of his master. It is a labor of love and patience, and will, when terminated, stand forth a noble monument to the noblest man that Italy has ever given birth to—as noble a one as any nation on earth can claim for her own. The sixteenth volume is out; on the seventeenth, Saffi is hard at work. The method of the workmanship seems to me most excellent. Each volume contains the most important writings of Mazzini in a year or series of years; the biographical and historical preface to each volume furnishing the reader with a complete sketch of the successive periods and phases of the Italian *risorgimento*. The first eight volumes of Writings published by Mazzini himself ended with the attempt of the 6th of February, 1853, to drive out the Austrians from Milan.

Saffi, in his first *proemio*, dwells affectionately on his personal relations with his fellow-triumvir after the fall of Rome.

"He had moments of darkest gloom, during which, silent and solitary, he avoided the company of the nearest and dearest. But these hours of passionate solitude yielded to the courageous, workful tenor of his nature, and when in domestic intercourse his bright humor was in full vein, his ways and gestures and epigrams, his mimicry—perfect while offending no one—made us all merry. How heartily I used to laugh at his anecdotes anent his student life at Genoa, the tricks of a certain *farçeur* familiar to the exiles of 1831 in Marseilles and Paris, or his own manœuvres in eluding and bewildering the not too wide-awake police in Switzerland. . . . 'Shut your books,' he would say to me—I had not yet got rid of my student habits, hedged round with classical fences and delighting in laborious erudition."

There is no laborious erudition in Saffi's writing now, but a painstaking earnestness in tracing the long, rough, uphill road trodden by Mazzini and his little band, who almost all fell without even his Pisgah's view of the Promised Land. This sixteenth, which must be read with the fifteenth and former volume, is intensely interesting, as it embraces the last three years of Mazzini's life, and closes on his death-bed, telling all, concealing nothing of his latest attempt to raise the republican flag in the spring of 1870, when, as he believed and as it is now proved, Victor Emanuel had pledged his royal word to assist the French Emperor in his attack on Germany, by sending a strong contingent of the Italian army across the Alps instead of seizing the opportunity to take possession of Rome.

"The victory of the Empire signified French hegemony over the minor States of western Europe and in the waters of the Mediterranean, and would have rendered the new Cæsar of the Gauls the supreme arbitrator of our destinies; nor would our contribution to his success, tendered as by vassals to their lord, have facilitated our entry into Rome, nor the completion of our national unity. Moreover, given the case of Prussian victory, this policy, base in every sense, and above all anti-Italian, exposed us, in virtue of our complicity, to serious and well-deserved reprisals. Rome, said Mazzini in those days, must be liberated from Milan, Genoa, Bologna, Naples, Palermo."

And here we have the hour-by-hour story of the conspiracy, unknown in many of its details to ourselves and even to Saffi until he secured from each individual conspirator the special narrative. Ernesto Pozzi thus tells of a midnight visit paid by Mazzini to the members of the revolutionary committee in the house of Vivaldi Pasqua (a Genoese duke) on the 24th of March, 1870:

"A revolution was prepared in Pavia and Piacenza: Genoa, Milan, Como, Brescia, Bologna, Naples, Catanzaro, and other important centres had agreed to second the movement. Mazzini, passing by Milan, reached Genoa by the last train. At Genoa the Revolutionary Committee awaited him in Via S. Lucca, N. 6, in the upper story of Giacomo Vivaldi Pasqua's house. All the members of the Committee were present; Stefano Canzio (husband of Garibaldi's daughter, Teresita), Antonio Mosto, commander of Garibaldi's crack corps of Genoese sharp-shooters, lamed by a Franco-Papal bullet at Monterotondo, Pasqua, Federico Gattomo, Giovanni Della Casa, Osvaldo Gnocchi-Viani, Giovanni Fontano, Enrico Razeto, Luigi Canessa, and myself.*

"The conspirators, here and there distributed in groups according to their respective destination, awaited the pass-word; sentinels with hidden arms lined the road Mazzini was to pass from the station. The night was dark, but as each solitary figure passed under the gaslights, Canzio and myself recognized them as we visited the posts on our way to Via Lucca. The guards of public security and carbineers in couples wended their way unsuspiciously, as though nothing unusual was occurring in Genoa. The members of the Committee, all armed, came in one by one, waiting in breathless silence for the advent of our chief. We expected to see him arrive in disguise to avoid recognition by the Argus-eyed police. . . . A tap at the door of Pasqua's apartment made our hearts beat; it must be Mazzini, we knew. It was he in body and in spirit, the great magician! Reverently we moved to welcome him. He, with the frankness of a boy, greeted us with his divine smile, and shook hands with all, addressing each of us by name. He wore no disguise, just his ordinary black dress and paletot and low felt hat over his brows. A spare, erect figure, he might have been a philosopher just come out of his study without a thought that could disturb the dreams of a world-wide police.

"We returned to our posts, Mazzini seated in front of me; and as he took off his hat and his head became visible, it was clear that the hat alone was sufficient disguise. Mazzini's head is a *chef 'dœuvre*, the vast forehead and luminous eyes a marvel. Calm as a general on the field, he asked for the latest details of our preparations, for the last news from the principal points of attack, the names of the appointed chiefs. Then he gave us his news, quoting from a tiny note-book in which places and names were written in cipher, and surprised us by his intimate knowledge of every spot in Italy, the conditions of the populace, the opinions of parties. A tempest burst over our heads, the rain rushed in torrents on the roof, flashes of lightning, followed by loud thunderclaps, lit up the room. 'The ancient Romans,' said Mazzini, with a sort of sad, proud revolt against Nature herself, 'would have augured ill for our enterprise, but,' he added in tones of authority, '*God will be with us.*' And in undertones to me, whom he knew to be an unbeliever in divinity—'if God exists, you would say.'

"If our plans had succeeded, the news from Piacenza and Pavia ought to have reached us on that night! [They had failed, owing to one of the common errors of conspirators, and the movement in Genoa itself was suspended.] 'To meet again,' said Mazzini; 'all is not yet ended.' He would not leave Genoa. He, the man of love and of tempests, could not accept the idea that Rome and Italian unity, abandoned by monarchy, were also to be abandoned by the Italian people."

From Genoa he went to Milan. The resurrectionary attempts in Calabria, in the mountains of Lucca and at Como, were suppressed one after the other. Mazzini, despairing of the Continent, went, despite the protests of his friends, to Naples, and thence to Sicily, where, betrayed by a German spy (who enjoyed his fullest confidence, and who, while still in the pay of Louis Napoleon, fought bravely under Garibaldi during the campaign of 1866), he was arrested and imprisoned in the fortress of Gaeta. But meanwhile the monarchy, understanding the alternative—the crown of towers in Rome, or a crownless, shameful eclipse—"went to Rome," and Italy was spared the disgrace and the disaster of fighting for the author of the chassepot miracles of Mentana.

In this volume, which appeared before Garibaldi's Autobiography, Saffi publishes letters which anticipate his reply to Garibaldi's erroneous yet naïve attacks on the Mazzinians. In the next volume, he writes, "I shall tell of Mazzini's latest thoughts and dying hours."

Intent as Saffi is on this his *own* work, he is still the centre and guide of the thinking youth of Italy, and his English wife, Georgina Crawford, is a fitting helpmeet for her noble husband. The Crawfords were among the earliest friends of Italy, and Georgina has been a faithful Mazzinian in every sense. If the infamous police regulations for fallen women are abolished, to the Saffis (after Bertani and the Nathans) will merit be due, and their four sons, all educated at the University, bid fair to follow the steps of their parents. Aurelio Saffi is "free" professor at the University, and his lessons are thronged. When, yesterday, he came to see me, a commission of students from the Democratic Club entered. The conversation turned on the topics of the day—the famous agitation for the statue to be (or not to be) erected to Giordano Bruno; the most unsatisfactory discussion on the liberty of the press which took place lately in the Chamber of Deputies. Saffi's suggestions were all wise, and listened to with reverent attention. "Demonstrations, agitations are useful when they have a fixed and justifiable object. Because the Government is not our ideal, we ought not to offer factious opposition. It will be well if we get Bertani's sanitary code, Zanardelli's penal code, the abolition of the regulations," etc. Foreign politics were of course discussed, and, far more than I expected, the German alliance is increasingly popular. I say unexpectedly, because republican France, has always been very dear to Italian democracy. But what with the commercial treaty and the scares, and the rumored attack on Spezia, a suspicion is growing into a settled belief that France, imperial, legitimist, or republican, is jealous of United Italy, regrets the contribution to its formation in 1859, and would, if unable to destroy the new kingdom, enfeeble it to such a point as to make it dependent on France itself. Saffi and the thoughtful portion of the old Mazzinian party, being unitarians before all things, perhaps ex-

*As I trace these names, it just occurs to me that, with the exception of Mosto, who remained in Genoa to organize the expedition, every one of these "Mazzinian conspirators," including Ernesto Pozzi, accompanied or followed Garibaldi at the end of that year (1870) "to help republican France invaded and crushed." Is not this a fresh proof that Mazzinians and Garibaldians were one and the same—that thought and action were inseparable?

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

aggerate the possible danger. On the other hand, they see no danger in an alliance with Germany, especially if poor "Fritz" (so really liked by Italians, who also are charmed with his wife for her interest in social questions) should live for some years; then, in case of a war, there is the chance of getting back the Tyrol and Trieste, the unredeemed provinces of Italy. In my humble opinion, Italy need not have entered into an offensive alliance with any nation. Her interests on the Mediterranean are identical with those of England, and there is no doubt that the unwritten Anglo-Italian alliance is really stronger at the present moment than any parchment bond between Bismarck and the Italian Minister. He will do well to remember that Italians are not Germans, and that, while they may worship a Cavour, they would not tolerate a Bismarck in duodecimo for a moment. But Crispi is still on his trial, and if ever a man had a fair field and all favor, it is he. Saffi applauded his Vatican policy, which is his strong point.

At the end of our long interview, the students asked him if there was any truth in the rumor that the University centenary was to be celebrated in a church, and inaugurated by a Te Deum? "Not if we are to have anything to do with it," answered Saffi. "It may be held in a church which is municipal property, if there be no other safe building large enough; but no religious color can be permitted." Then, on the students' saying they wished to invite Bovio (the celebrated Professor of Philosophy at the University of Naples and head of the Democrats in Parliament) to hold a Democratic conference, Saffi said: "That is good, and I will sign the invitation as I signed that to the King. Let us avoid any appearance of party spirit in this commemoration of our dear old University."

Long may cruel death, which has devastated the ranks of the "Old Guard," leave us this true heir of Mazzini's spirit, the true interpreter of his life and work. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

JOURNALISTIC PURIFICATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question of how to obtain the news in a form fit to be delivered at home, has troubled me not a little, as it has troubled thousands who have families with children growing up to the reading age. I can see no solution unless some of the technical journals—noticeably those devoted to architecture—furnish the model. Some of them publish two and one as many as three editions, differing in the number and costliness of illustrations, in the "supplement" form. Why cannot our dailies publish a regular edition which shall be such as decent people may read and have delivered at their homes without offence; then another edition with a supplement containing the "sporting events," lottery "ads.," the illustrations, etc.?

A really enterprising journal would find opportunities for contracts to deliver the regular edition at the homes and the supplements at the down-town offices, at a profitable advance on the usual subscription rates. Able editors might vie with each other in getting up these supplements so that bound volumes of them would sell. The more costly edition might attract wide attention under some such name as the "Sport's Own" or the "Prize Ring" edition, or, perhaps, without entire inappropriateness, might adopt the names in use by some of the architectural journals referred to, as, the "Imperial" or the "Royal" edition.

Yours, etc., A Fogy.

April 8, 1888.

PENSIONING SUBSTITUTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of the various pension bills, one feature has, I think, been overlooked, which allow me to present. Its consideration may perhaps serve to convince even those who honestly advocate indiscriminate pensioning, of the injustice of putting on the same plane those who went into the war from patriotic motives and those who went into it for gain.

In 1863 and 1864 I served for the Government as examining surgeon for drafted men and substitutes in one of the largest districts of the West, and thousands of that class came under my eye and personal observation. It was at a period when State, city, and county bounties were plentiful, when the bone and sinew of the country was already in the field, when the Government ordered drafts from among all able-bodied citizens up to the age of forty-five, and when it may be said that every man passed by the surgeon and recruited into the ranks was, paradoxical as it may seem, an involuntary volunteer—that is, he was either a man who was forced into the ranks because he was too poor to buy a substitute, or he was a substitute who sold himself into the army for big money. I kept a private record at the time of the percentage of these two classes, which is now lost, but I venture to say from recollection that not 10 per cent. of the accepted belonged to the former class, and that 90 per cent. were substitutes.

The scenes which presented themselves at the examining surgeons' offices at those times were sometimes ludicrous (because of the attempted simulations), sometimes pathetic, but in the main disgraceful and disgusting. Dealers in substitutes were on hand with their stock in trade ready for inspection. These dealers (brokers they called themselves) sprang up like mushrooms—a sharp, conscienceless, unscrupulous class, ready for cheat, bribe, or any kind of deceit to sell their man. They scoured the lowest dives of the cities and towns for material. They watched all the steamboat landings for contraband and plantation negroes, such as poured out into the North and West from the rear of our advancing armies. They rented large apartment houses whereto they took these men, boarded them, gave them clothing, got them drunk, and made them sign a printed blank agreeing, for the consideration therein mentioned, to serve as substitutes. The consideration generally was small; if the man was rejected, the dealer lost his advances; if accepted, his profit was immense. In these houses they held them as prisoners until they could sell them. The market price for substitutes changed with the supply and demand, varying from five hundred to two thousand dollars apiece, and the brokers all over the country had a regular system of exchange in this commodity.

The substitutes offered were nearly all either foreigners recently landed, bounty jumpers, or negroes recently freed. The scum and the dregs of Europe, attracted by the bounties, dumped themselves into this country for sale into the army. The devices resorted to for hiding physical defects that would cause rejection were sometimes ingenious. The lying, especially as to age, was tremendous. As fast as a substitute was rejected by one surgeon, he was taken or sent by the broker into another district to a more facile officer, and there, in many instances to my own knowledge, accepted. The bribery and corruption in this traffic were scandalous.

As a rule, the white men presented (at least in my district) were unfit—though many were accepted—while the negroes generally had a splendid physique, except that, strange to say, the larger portion had a loathsome complaint, which, however, under instructions from the General Army Surgeon, if of a mild character, did not disqualify them from being accepted.

It would be interesting for a war statistician to ascertain from the enlistment records the number of men who entered the army as substitutes. It seems to me that the ardor, as to pensions, of the most patriotic G. A. R. man would cool down when it is proposed to put men who were sold into the service like cattle on a level with the honest, sturdy, noble volunteer who entered the ranks for his country's sake and not for the sake of money. I have no doubt that there are many still living who served as examining surgeons at the time of drafts, and whose experiences in this particular were similar to mine. Statements and discussions on that point might perhaps bring the facts here set forth so strongly before the public and Congress that, if not resulting in a halt to indiscriminate pensioning, it may lead to an adoption of the principle that the man who sold himself into service is not entitled to the same consideration as the man who entered it from patriotic motives. J.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for March 20 appears a communication upon entrance requirements in women's colleges. May I be permitted to call attention to one or two suggestions of the writer which seem to me to be misleading?

The statement is made that "admission on certificate was followed by an eleven-fold increase of students at Smith." That certainly strikes one as worthy of remark, but sequences are not always consequences. Smith College began its work with one class of twelve students. In the fourth year, when three more classes had been added, it is true that there were 133 students in the institution. To give the credit of this increase, however, to the system of admission by certificates is entirely gratuitous, and would imply very small appreciation of the rapid growth of interest in woman's education. Each succeeding class has been larger as the public has learned to appreciate the value of higher education for women, and as the preparatory schools have become accustomed to send students to these colleges. The matter of certificates has probably had very little influence upon the numbers attending Smith, and we are confident that students have not on this account been admitted with any less thorough preparation. The standard of the College was never before as high as it is now, and the President and Faculty were certainly never more ambitious to keep it at the highest possible point, and fully on a level with the best institutions of the land.

The writer of the article referred to goes on further to say:

"An examination of the forms of certificates discloses how cumbrous the system is, how many exceptions to the rule prevail, how easily the instructor may shirk responsibility for a student's failure after she has entered college, and how numerous are the opportunities for abuses to creep in. Stated generally, certificates are now accepted from 'approved'

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

schools and individuals. This approval has been based upon actual experience in educating pupils prepared at the school, or a visit by one or more of the College Faculty, the recommendation of a trustee of the College, or a self-appointed committee of alumnæ, or even a mutual friend. These visits, it is said, have sometimes proved purely social in their nature."

These statements and implications are of considerable variety, and lead the writer to the conclusion (whatever may be the conviction of the reader) that it is a "baneful" system, fit only to be met by protests. Without proposing to discuss the question, it is fair to enter a reminder that the best educators of the older institutions are far from being all of one opinion, and that the system is not by any means confined to colleges for women. I am, furthermore, confident that it need not, and should not, result in any lowering of the standard for admission. I may add, inasmuch as Smith College has been especially alluded to, that, as a matter of fact, very rarely, under present usage, is a school added to the list of those from which we will accept certificates until sample examination papers, with the actual answers of the pupil, have been sent to the examiners, and in all cases valid evidence must be given that the full requirements have been met. I may add, further, that by no means have examinations been given up, and that we have every year opportunity to compare students who enter by the different plans, and have not been able to discover that students are more apt to come inadequately prepared under the one method than the other. Those who have to be warned or conditioned for poor scholarship after entering, come in quite as large a proportion from those who are examined as from the others.

There are many possible objections to any scheme which can be devised. All must depend in the end upon the members of the Faculty who have the responsibility of admitting the new students. It is, apparently, an opinion prevalent in some minds that the plan of accepting certificates is adopted with the simple aim of gathering students at the expense of the scholarship of the college, and that any such purpose would be thwarted by substituting examinations. It is manifest, however, that under either plan the college can degrade itself, if it will. Conscientious care can, on the other hand, with either system, protect and sustain the highest standard of scholarship. The students of all institutions are sure to come into comparison, and we are willing to accept the verdict of results.

HENRY M. TYLER,
Chairman of Board of Examiners.

SMITH COLLEGE, NORTHAMPTON, April 9, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that a good deal of the discussion in your columns on admission to colleges by certificate has not shown a good grasp of the real question at issue. When there are three possible ways of accomplishing an object, it is not sufficient, in order to recommend a certain course, to show that it is superior to one of the others; it must be shown to be superior to both of them. This looks like a very simple rule of logic, but it has been very much sinned against in your columns.

The question is, in the first instance, not a question that concerns women more than men, since such important colleges as Michigan University and Cornell have adopted the plan of certificates. Hence I shall make use of the common pronoun *he* in what I have to say.

There are three ways, all in actual use, by which students may be admitted to colleges: (1) by an examination at the college, (2) by local examination, (3) by certificate. The first method, which has been the only one until recent years, is open to two plain objections. If the candidate comes from a distance, a considerable expense is incurred for the journey, which is money thrown away in case he proves unsuccessful; and the fatigue of the journey, the strangeness of his surroundings, and an incipient homesickness make the student more or less incapable of doing himself full justice. These are real objections to the first method. They are completely obviated by *both of the other methods*, and yet one at least of your correspondents seems to think that it is only necessary to insist upon these two objections with sufficient force in order to prove the desirability of admission by certificate. The only allusion he makes to admission by local examinations is to say that it "seemed undesirable." But the only interest in the discussion lies in the full and complete statement of the grounds for choosing either plan (2) or plan (3) in preference to the other; everybody is agreed—Harvard, Yale, and Princeton included—that plan (1) needs to be supplemented by at least one of the other plans.

The arguments in favor of the system of local examinations rather than that of certificates are these:

(*a.*) They relieve the teacher of a serious responsibility which there is no reason for his being required to assume. The distinction which his school acquires from having well-prepared pupils is even more marked if they pass good examinations than if they merely enter college on his recommendation.

(*b.*) They relieve the student of the anxiety of not knowing for a whole half-year whether he will be allowed to continue with his class or not, and they save him from the mortification of being, in a sense, expelled on account of insufficient preparation. There is far more publicity and disgrace attached to being sent home than to simply failing, in the first place, to pass an examination.

(*c.*) They furnish, from the nature of the case, a far more satisfactory test of the real acquirements of the pupil than can be had from the opinion of any teacher, however honest and capable he may be. It is impossible that the teacher in every school, taken at hazard, should have as exact an idea of what constitutes a sufficient preparation for entering upon a given study as the head of the department in the college in which that study is to be pursued.

(*d.*) They are not liable to abuse, as the other plan plainly is in the hands of dishonest and incapable teachers.

(*e.*) The most important reason in their favor is that they furnish a far more effective means of raising the standard of the preparatory school than the plan of admission by certificate. To pass the examination is a test that can only be met by a thoroughly good school; the privilege of getting students in by certificate is always open to the charge of favoritism. The local examinations might be taken by many members of the school besides those who are expecting to go to college, and they would thus furnish a general test for the school, and not simply for those students upon whom special pains have been expended. The Bryn Mawr circular expressly states that "the examination for matriculation will be open to those who wish to take it as a test of proficiency in elementary studies, but have no intention of entering the college."

Your correspondent, "M. A. W.," is of the opinion that the certificate system has been the cause of an improvement in the preparatory schools from the fact that the certificate system and the improvement have existed side by side. This sort of argument is one which it is very hazardous to make use of. There is every reason to suppose that the schools would have improved in any case, as they became more familiar with the requirements which the colleges made of them. The most that can possibly be shown by the facts is, that the *effect of the certificate system has not been so bad as to counterbalance whatever improvement would naturally have taken place in the schools in the same time.* It remains to be shown that a much greater improvement would not have taken place if the system of local examinations had been chosen instead. This is, again, a simple matter of logic, which, however the discussion may turn out, it is a pity not to see attended to.

Local examinations are not difficult to have well conducted. They are already held by Vassar at nine regular centres—Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, St. Louis, Detroit, Louisville, Omaha, Denver, and San Francisco—and provision is readily made for special cases as they arise. The plan recommended by Mr. Beckwith of having a joint local examination-paper prepared which could be accepted by a large group of colleges (for both men and women) would seem to be an admirable one.

C. L. F.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The remarks of Mr. Beckwith in regard to the admission of students to college on certificate must have appealed to many teachers. If I can judge from my own experience, it is not agreeable to a teacher in a preparatory school to decide himself whether his pupil is fit to enter a particular college. Aside from the difficulty a teacher may find in keeping himself informed of the exact standard maintained at each college, many teachers feel that they are constantly liable to overrate the acquirements of their pupils. Furthermore, when a teacher comes to draw the line between those of his pupils who are prepared for college and those who, having studied an equal length of time, are, through lack of ability or of diligence, not yet fit to enter, he exposes himself to the suspicion of favoritism or prejudice. This is just what the Harvard examiners seek to avoid when they require the examination-papers to be signed with numbers instead of names, so that they do not know whose papers they are marking.

Mr. Beckwith's suggestion that a common entrance examination be given by a committee representing the New York and New England colleges seems worthy of attention. It would help to bring all the Eastern colleges up to the same level. As it is now, no one can tell how much a man's degree represents till he knows at what college he received it.

But even when the requirements for admission are nominally equal, we cannot tell whether two colleges are on the same footing unless we know how rigidly the requirements are enforced. The smaller colleges are constantly tempted to lower the standard of admission in order to let in more students. Some of the readers of the *Nation* may know what pressure is sometimes put upon instructors to pass men insufficiently prepared. This is done by the President or by trustees who want students, and do not realize the necessity of exacting a certain amount of technical attainments. Why do Americans always gauge the success of a college by the number of its students?

Let me say here a word about the results of admitting students inadequately trained to the Freshman Class. It must be remembered that a good teacher suits the pace to the average

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ability of his class. If the class contains many poorly grounded members, he either has to go back and spend time in reviewing the elements, or, at any rate, he is forced to proceed with a slowness which needlessly keeps back the better prepared part of the class. These inequalities are particularly injurious where the class is too small to be divided into two sections.

As for the unfortunate youth himself who enters college with insufficient training, he goes through the first half of his course with, as it were, a millstone tied around his neck. In his case, how many of the professor's remarks fall on deaf ears, because he is not prepared to appreciate their force. I lost, I believe, half the benefit of the excellent instruction in Greek we received at the small college where I spent the first years of my student life. And why? It was because, although I had never been properly grounded in the elements of that language, I was yet suffered to enter college. It was no kindness to me, was it? Under such circumstances an ambitious student is likely to injure himself by overwork, while one of the ordinary sort becomes permanently discouraged, and goes through his tasks as a kind of drudgery in which he can never take any real interest.

C.

ANNANDALE, N. Y., April 15, 1888.

A QUESTION OF INDEBTEDNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Seligman's answer in the *Nation*, No. 1187, to the notice of his book in No. 1185, only strengthens the impressions and conclusions of the reviewer. At the outset he admits his great obligations to Gross, and yet he devotes a later portion of his letter to a denial of this fact. "I should be sorry to underrate my obligations in chapter i. to Dr. Gross," does not square with "It was only when the chapter had been substantially written that Dr. Gross's essay appeared." This self-same contradiction appears in Mr. Seligman's Preface, and hence the reviewer called the acknowledgments of indebtedness to Gross equivocal.

Mr. Seligman evades the issue when he denies that he blindly copied references, without consulting the works referred to; he was not accused of doing this. The real question is this: Did not Gross furnish Seligman with the clue to more of those references than the latter acknowledges? The few authorities which Mr. Seligman in his letter says are not mentioned by Gross, are, in part, actually to be found in the latter's treatise (*e. g.*, 'Historic Documents of Ireland,' Gross, p. 56); the others are, in great part, local histories substituted in Mr. Seligman's book for other, mainly superior, works cited by Gross on the same subjects. The contention of the reviewer was, that Mr. Seligman added no *important* references—none that advanced our knowledge of the subject by giving materials not presented by Gross. A sprinkling of new but unimportant references can be added to almost any treatise; but the former will not transform a compilation into a book of original research.

Mr. Seligman contends that the references common to the two books "are the common property of all scholars, and are mentioned almost without an exception in the works of Brady, Madox, Thompson, Stubbs, Merewether, and Stephens." The latter part of this statement we emphatically deny. In which of these authors did he find the references to the very important Southampton Gild Ordinances, the 'Historic Documents of Ireland,' Barrett's 'Bristol,' and the valuable passages relating to the gild in the 'Abbreviatio Placitorum,' 'Placita de quo Warranto,' Blomefield's 'Norfolk (Lynn),' etc., etc.? Mr. Seligman talks as though he and Mr. Gross both exhausted the printed sources independently. But this is far from being the case. The striking sins of omission in both works are identical—another strong ground for our believing that the one was based mainly on the other. In the following printed books Mr. Seligman will find much very valuable "common property of all scholars" which both he and Mr. Gross failed to discover: 'Record of Caernarvon,' 158–198; Battely, 'Antiquitates Sancti Edmundi,' 159–160; 'Chartae, etc., Hiberniae,' *passim;* Gale, 'Inquiry into Corporate System of Ireland,' Appendix; 'History of Guildford,' *passim;* 'Rotuli Hundredorum,' i., 332–334, 461, etc.; Lascelles, 'Liber Munerum,' part i; Devon. Assoc. for Advancement of Science, etc., Trans., xi., 191–212; Wilts. Archæol. and Nat. Hist. Soc., Magaz., iv, 160–174; and, above all, the reports of the Municipal Corporations' Commission of 1835. If Mr. Seligman will digest these references, he will be able to add some new sections to his book; and it may dawn upon his mind that in historical research the sources are like rich beds of ore—valueless until discovered and exploited. In original investigation on such a subject as the gilds, to bring together passages from widely scattered sources is half the battle; and he who does it ought to get full credit for his labors from his successors who write on the same subject and make use of his work.

Mr. Seligman's enumeration of the new arguments contained in his book is a confession of weakness. Sifted down it amounts to this: he actually differs with Gross on a single point—one which the latter advances, with much diffidence, as a conjecture. As for the relation between the gild merchant and the crafts (Seligman, pp. 58–60), that, we admit, is not given by Gross, who postponed his treatment of this subject for a future time. But the substance of it is to be found in Stubbs. Had the work of Mr. Seligman been one of exhaustive original research, he would have treated this topic in a fuller and abler manner. We reiterate that the kernel and substance of Gross's book is contained in that of Seligman, with only unimportant additions. This the latter practically admits in his letter and in the preface of his essay.

Mr. Seligman has this to learn, that if he prints an essay containing substantially the same materials and results (including many peculiar turns and ramifications of thought) as are contained in a work of original research printed four years before his own, he must be prepared to acknowledge his obligations to his predecessor fully and unequivocally. If he does not do this, he must expect either that reviewers will berate him, in most cases, more severely than did the critic in No. 1185 of the *Nation*, or that psychological societies will discuss the wondrous similarity of cerebral movement and cerebral sinuosities displayed by him and his predecessor. THE REVIEWER.

LONDON, April 6, 1888.

Notes.

WM. R. JENKINS will shortly publish the first part of Prof. M'Fadyean's 'Comparative Anatomy of the Domesticated Animals.' He has just issued Victor Hugo's 'Quatre-vingt-treize,' uniform with his handsome reprint of 'Les Misérables,' and announces his intention to continue the series till it includes all of Hugo's novels. To his "Théâtre Contemporain" he has added Erckmann-Chatrian's "L'Ami Fritz."

Mr. F. W. Taussig's 'Protection to Young Industries' and 'History of the Present Tariff,' enlarged with new matter, will be consolidated into one volume of present interest and value, 'The Tariff History of the United States (1789-1888),' and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The same firm announce further 'A Sketch of the Germanic Constitution' to 1806, by Samuel Epes Turner; and 'The Present Condition of Economic Science,' by Edward C. Lunt. Their issue of Franklin's Works, edited by Mr. John Bigelow, is now nearly completed, and will be followed by a uniform edition of the 'Correspondence and Diaries of Washington,' edited by Worthington C. Ford.

Paolo Mantegazza's 'Testa; a Book for Boys,' translated by Prof. L. D. Ventura, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

The fourth volume of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' has made its appearance (Lodge-Pickens).

Ticknor & Co. send us a new edition, revised, of Laurence Hutton's 'Literary Landmarks of London.' The book, though reduced in quality of manufacture as in price, is still both presentable and readable. Its arrangement is by authors in alphabetical order. The supplementary notes show what havoc time is making with the monuments extant when the first edition was published.

Mr. T. W. Knox's 'Pocket-Guide to Europe' (Putnams) renews itself with a list of cures, baths, and springs, having their several medicinal properties indicated; and with tabulated "Travel Talk" in four languages—English, French, German, and Italian. This is rather a vocabulary than a phrase-book. There are very few complete sentences, and the editor's imagination is very meagre. Ten nouns, one adverbial phrase ("on board"), and one interrogation ("Does the train stop at intermediate stations?"), form the complete linguistic outfit for "travelling by railroad and steamboat."

The success attendant upon their large-paper edition of Dean Stanley's 'Memorials of Westminster Abbey' last autumn, has encouraged Messrs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. to bring out the work from the same plates in a popular duodecimo form, handsomely printed and bound in green cloth. The price now asked for the three volumes is as low as would be thought possible for such excellent make. The etched frontispieces have given way to process cuts, but in the case of the Poets' Corner this will hardly be accounted a loss.

'Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language' (New York: John B. Alden) is avowedly an abstract in the main of Chambers and of Stormonth. It includes men of the time. The form is handy, and a single column is employed. The sparse illustrations have been borrowed from Chambers and from other sources. Vol. 1 extends from A to America.

Dr. C. W. Larison of Ringoes, N. J., whose independent phonetic labors we have frequently remarked upon, has just published 'Solomon'z Song, with an Introducshun and Nots,' in a type which we cannot imitate here. He has cast the Song in a dramatic form, with stage directions, as, "The Brīd stats," "The corus ov attendant virjinz appruvingli ecsclam," "The Brīd relates a sircumstans ov inattenshun tu her Brīdgrum," etc. The commentary is copious. Having made the above innovations, Dr. Larison might properly have gone further, and adopted the text and the poetic arrangement of the Revised Version, instead of following the old.

Miss Nina Moore has, with no little dexter-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ity, told in an attractive way, easily intelligible by children, "the story of the planting of Plymouth and Boston" ('Pilgrims and Puritans.' Boston: Ginn & Co.) She has drawn textually more or less upon the original authorities, and, by means of plenty of maps, portraits, and views, has made the narrative impressive at every stage. Finally, the notes reserved for the end of the little volume serve for a glossary and for precise reference to the sources and to collateral reading. We have thus a very well-conceived and well-executed text-book, useful to young and old.

For aids to French instruction we can also recommend 'Florian's Fables,' selected and edited by the Rev. Charles Yeld, with illustrations; Molière's 'L'École des Femmes,' edited by Mr. G. Saintsbury; and the first three books of Thierry's 'Récits des Temps Mérovingiens,' edited by G. Masson and A. R. Ropes. The last two works bear the imprint of the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press, but all, like the first, come to us from Macmillan & Co.

An American *Notes and Queries* is to be launched in Philadelphia on May 5, under the editorship of Messrs. William S. and Henry C. Walsh. The place of publication is 619 Walnut Street.

The second number of the *Journal of Morphology* retains the high place taken by the first, and likewise fulfils the hope we expressed when speaking of the first number, that more vertebrate material would be forthcoming. Of the five pages, the illustrated three treat of the development of the lamprey, the lizard, and the opossum, respectively, and are by Professors Scott and Osborn and Mr. Orr of Princeton. The editor discusses, under the rather new term, "oökinesis," "The Kinetic Phenomena of the Egg during Maturation and Fecundation," and the number concludes with "Some Observations on the Mental Powers of Spiders," by George W. and Elizabeth G. Peckham, so interesting and instructive that it is almost ungracious to remark that the paper relates much more to the senses than to the "sense," and that Physiological-Psychology is very far from pure Morphology. The admirable "summary" of one of the papers accents the lack of that important feature with the others. Mechanically, the number is nearly perfect, but on p. 378 occurs "septæ for septa," and the contents of No. 1 has "philogenetic" for phylogenetic.

The second number of Dr. Stanley Hall's *American Journal of Psychology* has three leading articles—one "On the Relation of Neurology to Psychology," by Henry H. Donaldson; the second, "Insistent and Fixed Ideas," chiefly the story of a single case of insanity, by Prof. Edward Cowles, and "A Critique of Psycho-Physic Methods," by Joseph Jastrow. Book reviews and notes in abundance fill out the number.

Weeks have elapsed since we ought to have acknowledged receipt of the Proceedings of the American Society for Psychical Research for December (Boston: Damrell & Upham). A tilt between Mr. Edmund Gurney and Prof. C. S. Peirce occupies a large space in it. Miss Alice C. Fletcher treats at length of the supernatural among the Omaha tribe. There are the usual reports of committees. Perhaps the most curious paper is that by Dr. William James on the "Consciousness of Lost Limbs."

A second series of papers has begun to be issued by the Department of Philosophy of the University of Michigan, led off by Prof. John Dewey on the "Ethics of Democracy"; Prof. Alexander Winchell on "Evolution and its Speculative and Religious Consequences," etc. (Ann Arbor: Andrews & Co.).

The interesting observation is made by Dr. Underwood, Customs Medical Officer at Kiukiang, China, that the comparative immunity of the Chinese in that region from typhoid fever, notwithstanding most of the factors favoring it are present in abundance, may be attributed to the fact that "cold, unboiled water is rarely or never used when tea can be had." This piece of practical wisdom others than Chinese might bear in mind in dangerous localities. At Seoul, Corea, more than 6,000 deaths from cholera occurred in six weeks in 1886, in a population of 150,000, but none in the European community of 56 persons. Protection was attributed by Dr. Allen to general cleanliness and the use of only boiled and filtered water for drinking, cooking, and the toilet, and the non-purchase of food in the Corean market. The number of the foreigners is too small to carry great weight, and it is probable that other differences in life contributed to their exemption. But the water lesson, so far as it goes, is as applicable at home. These memoranda occur in the Thirty-third Medical Report, published by the British Inspector-General of Maritime Customs in China.

In a reprint from the *Medical News* of September 5, 1887, Professor Leeds of the Stevens Institute describes an investigation of an epidemic of typhoid fever at Mt. Holly, N. J., which is a fresh illustration that drinking water polluted with animal putrescence is the most common cause of such outbreaks. But much more important is the apparent discovery that minute quantities of alum (a half grain to the gallon) will sterilize the water by the precipitation of the bacteria with the organic matter when of peaty nature, or with alkalies previously added, the whole precipitate being removable by filtration. If this is confirmed, and the reputation of the reporter leaves no reason to doubt it, a very important agent has been added to the resources of preventive medicine.

Mr. Francis Parkman has lately apprised the Massachusetts Historical Society of the discovery in France, by the Abbé Casgrain of Quebec, of a mass of papers collected and arranged by Gen. Lévis, Montcalm's second in command, that relate to the American campaigns in which they participated. They fill eleven volumes, and have great historical importance.

The library of the late Baron S. de la Roche La Carelle, which is to be sold in Paris from April 30 to May 5, offers an especial attraction to collectors who affect fine bindings. Accompanying the large-paper catalogue sent us by Charles Porquet, 1 Quai Voltaire, are heliogravures, in black and white and in color, of the more beautiful specimens—Bibles and prayer-books, the Latin and Greek classics, histories, belles-lettres, science, and theology. These plates are themselves a valuable possession for the connoisseur. Some of the most famous private libraries in France have, in their breaking up, contributed to M. de La Carelle's, now in its turn to be dispersed. We must add mention of the Baron's etched portrait, the frontispiece of the catalogue. A sketch of his career as a bibliophile is furnished by M. Quentin-Bauchart.

In reviewing a novel by an American authoress, the Milan *Perseveranza* pays homage in dubious typography to "W. D. Flowel," "Mark Zwain," and "Francis Burnett." It is both just and natural to attribute these little slips to the printer, and not to the writer (except as a bad penman).

Those who, for the sake of the man or as a landmark in the history of American book-illustration, would be glad to own a likeness of the late Felix O. C. Darley, need seek no further than the gallery of Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia. The phototype portrait which he has just issued (in cabinet size) is both a very pleasing memorial of a genial man and artist of much individuality, and an admirable example of Mr. Gutekunst's permanent photographic process.

The Executive Committee of the Trustees of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, with Prof. Lowell at their head, make an appeal for an endowment fund of one hundred thousand dollars. It appears that Dr. Charles Waldstein's acceptance of the permanent directorship in October next depends upon the raising of this endowment before August 1. Our readers are already aware of the principal facts in regard to the comfortable housing and the brilliant field work of the School. Subscriptions may be sent to the Treasurer, 67 Mt. Vernon St., Boston, or to Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Cambridge, Mass.

—Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. write us that the statement in our recent review, 'Some New German Grammars,' that "Prof. Joynes . . . has once before worked over a grammar, viz., Otto's," is erroneous, "Prof. Joynes not having had to do with the revisions of 'Otto's German Grammar.'"

—To librarians desiring to extend or complete their collections of the publications of French societies we commend the 'Bibliographie des Sociétés savantes de la France,' by Eugène Lefèvre-Pontalis, recently issued in delightful typography from the Imprimerie Nationale at Paris, in a quarto volume of 142 pages. This work is published by the Department of Public Instruction, under the immediate superintendence of the Comité des travaux historiques et scientifiques. From the preface we learn that there are no less than 655 societies of various kinds, exclusive of the numerous associations for the encouragement of agriculture and horticulture, which are omitted, in 197 cities of France. Paris naturally takes the lead, 142 literary, artistic, or scientific associations holding their meetings in that city. There are 12 additional societies in the French colonies, 9 in Algiers and its provinces, 2 in Cochin China, and 1 in the island of Réunion. The publications of all these learned bodies, to the end of 1886, number about 15,000 volumes, and the present annual increase to this literature the author estimates as something like 500 volumes. An examination of the catalogue shows that the Paris societies alone have issued more than 4,700 volumes. The greater part of the institutions enumerated have come into existence in the fifty years between 1830 and 1880, but not a few of them are of considerable antiquity, no less than six dating from the seventeenth century. The Académie Française came into existence as early as 1635, but its first publication recorded, the widely known 'Dictionary,' did not appear until 1694; the seventh edition of it being published in 1878. The National Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Belles-Lettres of Caen is only seventeen years younger than the Paris Academy, having been founded in 1652. The Bordeaux Academy dates from 1662, the Paris Academy of Sciences from 1666, and the Academy of Nîmes was founded in 1682. The Académie des Jeux Floraux of Toulouse is stated to have existed in the fourteenth century under the name of "Collège du gai savoir et de la gaie science," and to have been reorganized in the fifteenth century by Clémence Isaure. In the month of September, 1694, letters patent were received from Louis XIV. under the present title, and two years

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

later there was published the first little volume of the series entitled, "Recueil de plusieurs pièces d'éloquence et de poésie," which extended almost without break to the year 1790, and was followed by the "Recueil de l'Académie," an unbroken series from 1806 to the present time, forming altogether a collection of 157 volumes. All six of these societies are still flourishing, but the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture of Bordeaux, which was founded in 1690, closed the first term of its existence in 1709. It was revived in 1769, but finally dissolved in 1793. Twenty-seven new societies are recorded as having been founded in 1881, twenty-one each in 1882 and 1883, twelve in 1884, four in 1885, and seven in 1886.

—This catalogue seems to be a most conscientious piece of work. Very few entries are to be discovered in which the facts aimed to be supplied are not fully and clearly set out. Care has been taken to indicate all indexes to series or parts of series of society publications, whether such indexes are separate volumes or are contained in certain volumes of the series. The peculiar arrangement of the work—primarily an alphabet of the departments of France, and under each name of a department a sub-alphabet of the towns in which societies are located—is not entirely the most convenient for a foreigner not thoroughly familiar with the geography of France, and it would have been an aid to the latter had there been added an alphabetical index of the names of the societies.

—'Auf Anlass des Volapüks' (Berlin: Robert Oppenheimer) is the title of an attractive brochure of forty-six pages, by Hugo Schuchardt, in which the author touches upon a number of linguistic questions. It was not so much Volapük itself, he tells us, that prompted him to write, as the hostility to it manifested by scientific linguists. He admits that many of the objections to Schleyer's language are reasonable, though he is not at all certain that it may not be best to let well enough alone (*das Bessere der Feind des Guten sein mag*). The root of this hostility he finds in one thing: Volapük is an artificial language. He instances as a sort of Volapük the "corrupt" Portuguese in which, 300 years ago, Chinese, Malays, Tamuls, and Hindus did business with each other, and which has maintained its existence to a considerable extent down to the present day, and that, too, in a tolerably uniform condition. This language was not gradually developed from the original Portuguese. "The Portuguese who landed on the shores of India came as Volapükists," and broke up their language for the natives, with the sole object of making themselves readily understood. From such a language Volapük is distinguished only by its broader basis and its well-laid plan. The author emphasizes the pressing need of a world-language, which he considers "the crown of all our international arrangements." Not only so, but he looks upon such a language as a scientific desideratum. Disagreeing entirely with Whitney, "who characterizes the thought of such a language as utopian, its realization as undesirable," he holds with Sayce that a world-language is "the dream of linguistic science," and holds with Sayce and Max Müller that such a language is a perfectly practicable thing. In the author's opinion, the Aryan type of language has been unduly exalted. It has come to be looked upon as "the rose among languages," but, like Milton, Schuchardt evidently feels the thorns more than he sees the rose. "Anomaly is not an accident in the Aryan languages, it is much rather a part of their very nature"; and in the discussion of these points he touches upon many an interesting linguistic problem. The classics come in for a word; and we find a pupil of Kallimachus-Schneider, Rost, Marquardt, Ritschl, and Jahn, throwing his influence against Latin and Greek. Systematic grammars he dislikes, and longs for an Ollendorf in the Cymric, Irish, Magyar, and Basque languages, which last, by the by, is looked upon by K. Hannemann as the most perfect of languages, and as suitable to become the world-language.

—In the Preface to the second volume of 'Deutschlands Geschichtsquellen im Mittelalter' (3d ed., Berlin, 1887), Professor Ottokar Lorenz of Vienna has declared war against the whole army of learned German historians—against all who have adopted the critical canons elaborated and expounded by such leaders as Ranke and Waitz. The great focus of German historical erudition, the 'Monumenta Germaniae Historica,' is ridiculed. The choice of sources printed in that collection, their arrangement, and the critical principles employed in editing them, are vehemently assailed. Here are a few of his utterances: "In the case of many of the Italian sources, one carries away the impression, that, to be consistent, they ought to print the whole of Muratori in the 'Monumenta.'" "It is simply incredible in what haphazard sequence the sources [in the 'Monumenta'] are arranged. Neither a geographical nor a chronological clue guides us through the labyrinth. . . . North and South, Italian and Slavonic, spiritual and temporal territories are mingled, as in a kaleidoscope, in these great unwieldy folios." "I am convinced that, if the method employed [in editing these sources] were placed, for examination, before a commission of exact philologians of the present day, they would there find in great part the very reverse of what the philology of to-day requires." Professor Lorenz thinks that they would condemn most of the "useless stuff" printed in the 'Monumenta' to be thrust into a great waste-paper basket.—"As regards the critical value of any information, too much stress must not be laid upon the proof of the time of its origin. . . . In reality it makes no difference, as regards the fact, whether contemporary information concerning it exists, or not." "Looking at the matter as a whole, we must regard it as settled that the more recent informant knows a fact better [than an earlier one], or, at least, can know it better." Professor Lorenz's fire has been returned from at least three quarters: W. Wattenbach in the *Neues Archiv der Gesellschaft für ältere Deutsche Geschichte*, vol. xiii. (Heft 2); L. Weiland in Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*, vol. lviii, pp. 310-335 (a very caustic and logical rejoinder); and, most recently, O. Holder-Egger, 'Die Monumenta Germaniae und ihr neuester Kritiker' (Hanover: Hahn'sche Buchhandlung, 1887). Every rational historian must agree with them in their conclusions, that the words of Lorenz contain very little truth, that he is fighting with windmills, that, in fact, the adoption of his views would undermine the foundations of historical learning. Some may go even further and conclude that the eminent Vienna professor is *non compos mentis*.

THE ORDNANCE SURVEY.

The Ordnance Survey of the United Kingdom. By Lieut-Col. T. Pilkington White, R.E., Executive Officer of the Survey. London: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. 1886.

THERE are few objects produced by what may be considered scientific labors that are more universally used and presumably appreciated than maps, and yet the number of untechnical persons, even among the most educated, who can determine the relative value of the various maps that are published, is small indeed, especially in this country. This arises partly from an ignorance of the delicacy and minute exactitude required in surveys of large areas, and partly from the want of familiar use of the finer kinds of maps that are found in older countries. There are, roughly considered, two methods of making maps. The one which is generally employed in a new country, and is the result of individual enterprises or needs, consists in making surveys of individual parcels of land, and, when they have become sufficiently numerous, combining them together to form a map of a larger area, township, county, State, or Territory, as the case may be. The other method, which must necessarily be carried on by the general Government of the State or country involved, pursues the opposite course of first determining the larger outlines of the area to be mapped, the exact position of characteristic and evenly distributed points, and of afterwards filling in the intermediate spaces, with a detail and exactitude only limited by the amount of labor and money it may be found advisable to expend thereon.

The former method is the one generally employed in a country where land is plenty and money scarce, such as ours was a hundred years ago, and is one which for a time answers the required purposes; but it is also one which in the very nature of things involves an accumulation of errors; hence, the greater the area involved the greater these errors become. As the country becomes more thickly populated and richer, and lands consequently more valuable, the loss which accrues to the community at large from the absence of an exact definition of boundaries, both natural and artificial, increases in two-fold ratio, and it is only a question of time, and of the relative intelligence of the people as represented by its lawgivers, when the second method shall be employed, and it be legally declared the duty of the general Government to provide the very best and most exact basis of maps by a general triangulation of the whole country conducted on a uniform system.

It is in some such condition as this that the United States finds itself at the present day, and it might be well for those of our legislators who have cavilled at the time and expense involved in the general and local surveys undertaken at various times and places in this country, to study the experience of our mother country, as set forth in this little volume of Col. White's, which gives a brief and, so far as may be, a popular account of the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain—a survey which has served as a model for those which have been undertaken since its inception by the various governments of Europe. Its name is in one sense a misnomer, since it has no longer even a nominal connection with the Ordnance, having always been carried on by the Royal Engineers, and having received this name because up to 1855 it was under the direction of the Board of Ordnance, a sort of quartermaster's department of the British Government, which was done away with, owing to the inefficiency it displayed during the Crimean war. Its inception is ascribed by Col. White to two engineer officers of the army, who, after the battle of Culloden, became convinced of the need, as a war measure, of a topographical map of the Scottish Highlands. It was not, however, till towards the close of the eighteenth century that the primary triangulation, the necessary substructure of any systematic survey, was ac-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tually commenced, and this great work was finally completed in 1852, some sixty or seventy years after.

The cadastral maps based upon this triangulation have followed in due course, but with increasing scale and minuteness of delineation as their value became more generally known by actual use of those already finished, until now the whole kingdom is mapped on a scale of six inches to the mile, and the more thickly settled counties and towns on a larger scale, the principal being the so-called twenty-five-inch scale, on which an acre covers a square inch of map surface, and the still larger 127-inch scale used for cities. It were impossible to enumerate all the many practical uses which these maps subserve. A cadastral map is one made for governmental purposes of land valuation and assessment, and Col. White states that 450,000 of these maps have been furnished to the Boundary Commission alone, to say nothing of those supplied to the many other Government boards and commissions, including the Geological Survey, of whose work it constitutes the indispensable basis. Moreover, under the admirable system adopted, by which certain reputable private firms are appointed Government agents for their sale, any private person can procure whatever map he wishes at a fixed price sufficient to cover cost, generally a few shillings. They are bought in enormous quantities by the general public, and their value as an educational factor alone is worth many times the cost of the survey. The number of employees of the Survey in 1885 Col. White gives as 3,240 persons, exclusive of temporary aids, such as taping boys, etc.

It may be well to consider, in this connection, what progress we have made in this country towards procuring such a map, since it is not, as some seem to think, a scientific luxury, but a practical necessity, the want of which involves to the community at large an actual annual loss far greater than its cost, enormous though this may seem when the area to be mapped is compared with that of Great Britain. The probability of our being involved in another great war seems so remote that many might question its necessity for strategic purposes, but the same argument might have been used only a short time before the late civil war; and yet how much blood and treasure might have been saved to the nation had our armies been provided with correct topographical maps of the Southern States, only those actually engaged in the conduct of their operations can realize.

There is no want of scientific ability for carrying on such a work, and of individual push and energy we have more than sufficient. A large amount of money has been spent both by State and general Governments for surveys of various kinds, and yet the results, as far as maps go, have been most inadequate and disappointing, consisting of various detached and mostly incomplete pieces of work, wanting in correlation and uniformity of system, and, such as they are, often unobtainable by the general public except through political favoritism.

The greatest work of scientific mensuration that has been undertaken in this country has been the Coast Survey, which has reflected great credit on the scientific corps that has carried it on. Within a comparatively few years its scope was widened by act of Congress, and it was authorized to extend its triangulation into the interior of the country through such States as should have a geological survey, and it became thenceforward the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The triangulation done under this authorization has been necessarily very irregular and unsystematic in its development.

Soon after the war, Clarence King, then only about twenty-six years of age, conceived the bold project of carrying a topographical and geological survey across the Rocky Mountains, taking in the belt of country to be opened up by the recently authorized Pacific Railroads. In spite of the discouraging prognostications of older scientific men, who said that Congress would never vote the funds for such a gigantic project, and that it was impracticable to carry on such a work in the arid regions of the Great Basin, his youthful enthusiasm and personal influence succeeded in obtaining a generous appropriation from Congress, which was continued year after year, and towards the end without any personal effort on his part. With the aid of a corps of scientific assistants, he so successfully accomplished the laborious task that in less than ten years the form of these mountain regions, hitherto standing on the maps as a great blank, marked "the American Desert," was mapped with an accuracy of detail entirely unknown in the thickly settled regions of the East. After two seasons' experience had proved the practicability of such work, the emulation of the officers of the Engineer Corps, under whose able chief Mr. King had been directed to work, prompted them to start a systematic topographical survey of the entire Western United States on the same general system as that outlined by Mr. King, but giving greater prominence to the topographical aspect of the work as one of military necessity. This was called the Wheeler Survey, from the Engineer officer in charge.

When Mr. King's field work was completed, his topographers were joined to the so-called Hayden Survey, which had hitherto carried on geological reconnaissances in that country without maps, and under their direction the beautiful topographical map of Colorado was produced. Two organizations were now occupied in preparing a general topographical map of the Western United States, supported by annual appropriations. Unfortunately, in spite of the great area, their work frequently overlapped; the zeal of either to outstrip the other overcame discretion, and each accused the other to Congress of doing bad work. Congress, unable to decide on the technical merits of either case, referred to the National Academy of Sciences the question whether it would not be to the advantage of the public that the geological and topographical work of these surveys should be consolidated each under one head. The recommendations of the Academy in regard to the geological work were adopted by Congress, these various surveys were discontinued, and in their place the United States Geological Survey was organized on a permanent basis, as a bureau of the Interior Department, in March, 1879.

That portion of the recommendations, however, which related to the topographical work, and which involved the consolidation of all Government organizations for mensuration of the country, the Coast, Lake, and Land Office Surveys, as well as those above mentioned, ran counter to too many personal interests in the existing Government organizations, and was stricken out from the bill before it was passed. Thus the bill in its mutilated condition provided for a geological survey, but neglected to provide for the indispensable basis of such a survey, the making of a correct topographical map of the country, while discontinuing those already in progress. The first director of the Survey, Mr. Clarence King, construed this action of Congress as an intimation that the immediate preparation of a general geological map of the United States was not desired, and directed his investigations to regions of which maps already existed or could readily be prepared. A few years after, however, the statement was distinctly made by Congress, in the annual appropriation bill, that the making of a geological map of the whole United States was one of the duties of the Geological Survey. The present director, Prof. J. W. Powell, construing this statement as an authorization to provide the necessary basis for such a map, immediately instituted a topographical survey of the whole country, compiling on a uniform scale the material already prepared by previous surveys. He also secured in some cases the coöperation of State authorities in the preparation of maps of individual States, and pushed this branch of his work so vigorously that at the present time the topographers attached to the Geological Survey outnumber its geologists.

The propriety or advisability of having two such gigantic undertakings as the topographical and geological surveys of the whole of the United States (an area, excluding Alaska, of over three million square miles), conducted by a single organization, might be questioned. It might be said that one and the same man could hardly conduct impartially, and to the best advantage, two kinds of scientific work, each requiring the very highest degree of technical ability and experience in its particular department as a guarantee of the accuracy of its results. It might be further objected that the magnitude of the undertaking is in itself a danger to a Government scientific work, since the very numerous salaried positions involved offer great temptations to bring these positions under political influence; and no good and honest scientific work can be done which is not perfectly and entirely free from any suspicion of political influence or favoritism. The best answer to any such criticisms will be the success of the work itself, and if Director Powell is permitted to carry out this great undertaking on the plan set forth by his chief topographer in a recent number of *Science* (July 29, 1887), he will have made one of the most important contributions of the century to the industrial and educational development of the country as well as to its geological study.

It may be reserved for another generation of geologists to reap the full benefits of his labors, but, were these maps accessible to the public as soon as completed, immediate practical benefit could be derived by those inhabiting the areas already surveyed, and the reproach that the school maps of this country are inferior to those of the rest of the world, might be rapidly removed. According to Mr. Gannett, 120 sheets of the map, covering an area of 250,000 square miles, or 1-12 of the United States exclusive of Alaska, have now been engraved at an average cost of $3 per square mile. Unfortunately, under the existing laws, these maps are destined exclusively to serve as the basis of a geological map, and no provision is made for their publication except as illustrating geological memoirs. Many years may elapse ere the geological mapping of these regions, necessarily a much slower work, is completed and the maps are issued. Even then they will be available only for geologists.

A leading member of Congress, when urged some fifteen years since to introduce a measure providing for the sale of Government scientific publications on the plan so long and successfully in operation in Great Britain, declined to do so, on the ground that the feeling of members of Congress, that it was beneath the dignity of our Government to enter into commercial trading, would render its passage impossible. Since that time it has not seemed to the majority of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Congress undignified for our Government to buy silver at 85 to 90 cents per 412½ grains and sell it for $1.00. Moreover, provision has actually been made in the law creating the Geological Survey for the sale of a limited number of its memoirs at cost of publication. This provision, so much desired by that large class of scientific men who, through want of political influence, had been unable to obtain such publications, works a certain injustice to the members of the Survey itself, since, no provision being made for the cost necessarily attending the sale and distribution of such memoirs, it has to be taken from the amount appropriated for scientific work, and no corresponding pecuniary advantage can inure to the Survey, as all sums received from such sales must be covered into the Treasury of the United States.

It seems, therefore, that a great benefit would be conferred upon the community at large by the passage of a bill providing for the sale not only of these maps, but of all Government publications which may be of interest to the public at large, at cost of printing and material used; and, further, that a given number of responsible booksellers at the principal centres of population should be designated as Government agents to conduct the details of such sale, and authorized to add a reasonable percentage to the cost sufficient to remunerate themselves for the labor and expense involved. This increase of cost to the public would be more than offset by the increased facility in obtaining such works, and the members of the various Government departments from which they proceed would be relieved of an irksome and often ungrateful task.

SAINTSBURY'S ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE.—II.

A History of Elizabethan Literature. By George Saintsbury. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

MR. SAINTSBURY'S remarks upon Shakspere will seem to some extreme in their praise; yet on the whole they strike us as containing many of the best observations in the book. Even here, however, he seems not to comprehend a position he is attacking. We are not arguing for the correctness of the German claim, that it was they who taught the English to understand Shakspere; but it is surely just to have it fairly stated. They—at least those of them entitled to speak with authority—have never taken the ground which is here vehemently assailed. What they maintain is, not that Germany taught England to admire her greatest author, but that it was Lessing and his school who were the first to point out that Shakspere was not an inspired barbarian, and that the qualities in him which his countrymen were wont to apologize for were the very ones of which they ought to be proud. It is no reply to this to say that Ben Jonson and Dryden admired him and that Pope and Dr. Johnson edited him. Ben Jonson said, also, that "Shakspere lacked art." In that brief sentence he compressed the criticism about the poet which was dominant in England for nearly two centuries. It can be found more or less plainly manifested in the writings of all the authors who have just been mentioned. From that idea the German school has always been free; and it early set out to show that art was the quality by which Shakspere was supremely characterized. Its claim to have originated this view of the poet may or may not have foundation in fact; but, before being denied, it deserves at least to be comprehended.

We have no space to comment upon several other points which betray errors of conception if not errors of fact. It remains to say a few words about the treatment of the period as a whole. It is a period of preëminent interest in English literature, and the difficulty of discussing it satisfactorily is necessarily increased by the limited scale on which the work is planned. Mr. Saintsbury has still further increased this inevitable difficulty by adopting the theory that, in order to understand the literary history of a period, "it is necessary to study the minor as well as the major illustrations of it"—which of course can only mean studying a small portion of the minor illustrations of it. He has therefore given much space to the inferior men whom the literary resurrectionists of later days have from time to time dug up, but have never succeeded in reviving. Yet, with all this, he has failed to indicate the grand central characteristics which mark the period he describes. Perhaps it would not be unjust to say that he has failed to see them. In that period the literary aspirations of men found their expression in the drama, just as in the age of Anne and the first Georges they did in the essay, just as they now do in the novel. The drama was the national literature. Its weakness and its strength were alike due to that fact. Everybody tried to write for the stage who could write at all, just as everybody now tries to write a novel. The result was, at times, as distressing in the one case as it is in the other. But the drama had this advantage as a national literature over both the essay and the novel, that it could make use of the double vehicle of prose and poetry, but especially of the latter. In the hands of a man of genius it could reach the highest elevation, for it could embody itself in the highest form of literary expression. But from poetry the novel of this century and the essay of the last have been practically divorced.

Because the Elizabethan drama, as the national literature, voiced the feelings and aspirations of the time, the result inevitably followed that everything which sought to interest or to influence men was apt to take upon itself that form. Politics, religion, personalities, atrocious crimes—every event that was talked about or thought about—was brought upon the stage. The period cannot be understood without having this fact clearly in mind; but there is nothing in this volume to show that Mr. Saintsbury has ever heard of it. He has devoted three pages, for instance, to "Gorboduc," and yet has not observed that this so-called first English tragedy is nothing but a pamphlet in disguise, that its aim is primarily political, and only in a limited sense literary. Its object was to persuade the Queen to marry, and to settle, by the results of marriage, the succession to the throne. It was a matter of supremest consequence to English Protestants at that time to have an heir apparent of the right faith while such an heir presumptive as Mary Stuart was in existence. If other proof were needed of the fact, the speech of the Counsellor *Arostus*, with which the tragedy closes, would settle the question decisively. The character of the piece was naturally decided to a great extent by the political motives that prompted its composition, and not by any conscious attempt to introduce into our tongue tragedies modelled after Seneca.

The fecundity of the Elizabethan drama, with all that results from it, was likewise due to the fact that it was the national literature. Of this Mr. Saintsbury has scarcely taken note. Yet it was something inevitable in a period when everybody wrote for the stage, when plays had no run whatever in the modern sense, and when (originally, at least) they were never even acted on successive nights. Most of the literature of this sort has perished, but there is plenty of proof that its production was enormous. This is something that implies much more than it says. Mr. Saintsbury looks down in a superior way upon the harmless drudges who delve in what "some moderns call the 'Bio-Bibliographical' side of the matter"; but if he had taken the pains to consult so common a work as Henslowe's 'Diary,' he would have seen clearly many things which he now sees dimly or does not see at all.

Take the case of Decker, a dramatist he admires. By collating the references in the work just mentioned, he would find that between the beginning of 1598 and the end of 1602, that author produced ten entire plays of his own, wrote in conjunction with others twenty-nine, and made additions to and alterations in half-a-dozen more. Thus, during the space of four years, he was concerned to a greater or less extent in the production of about forty plays; yet of these forty, if we can judge from the titles, only four appear to have survived. This is far from being a singular instance. The faults of the Elizabethan drama are largely due to the fact that it was almost always written hurriedly, written against time. To that is due much of the crudeness and imperfection that mark it—not anything peculiar in the character of the men or of the period. But the subject is too vast to be much more than indicated in this place.

Of Mr. Saintsbury's critical estimates we purpose to speak only in general terms. These touch matters upon which no two persons will ever agree, and each has a right to his preferences. There is much, however, found here that will exact respect even when it does not command assent. The author's views are those of a man who not only has a firm faith in his opinions, but has generally good reasons to show for his faith. There are paragraphs and even long passages which strike us as of the highest merit, and that, too, when with the views set forth we should have no sympathy. But here, as elsewhere throughout the work, there is another side to the shield. Against the places mentioned are to be set Mr. Saintsbury's occasional mighty admirations for petty men and petty productions, his capacity as a professional critic of finding inimitable what the rest of the world looks on as being simply endurable; and, worse than all, that bias of judgment which is the result of importing politics into literature. The death of King Charles secretly troubles Mr. Saintsbury's head as much as it avowedly did Mr. Dick's. It leads, perhaps unconsciously, to extravagant statements, and gives to some of his remarks a tone unsuited to literary history. The current critical jargon which does so much valiant duty for ideas, reaches perhaps its highest possible climax of absurdity in speaking, as is done in this volume, of Milton's "middle-class Philistinism" (p. 389). Such a phrase recalls the wish expressed in Wordsworth's famous sonnet that Milton were living at this hour, and leads one to feel the truth of his words, "England hath need of thee"—for she has become a fen of stagnant literary waters indeed.

It is necessary to talk plainly in this matter, because it is evident that Mr. Saintsbury has little idea of the toleration of which no one stands more in need than himself. There is sometimes a sad, and sometimes a scornful, pity expressed for those who do not share his sentiments. Of course, you are ignorant, or, if not ignorant, you are dense, or some other one of those epithets in the use of which the bumptiousness of literary criticism finds supreme delight. For Mr. Saintsbury takes himself

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

very seriously. He possesses plainly the fullest conviction that when he has spoken, the last word has been uttered. Very rarely does he admit the existence of any lingering doubt in his mind that he has penetrated to the inmost citadel of truth. Once, indeed, he does seem to hesitate—but it is for a moment only. This is in his remarks upon the question whether the primacy in English poetry is to be accorded to Spenser, or Milton, or Shelley. Shakspere is, of course, excluded from consideration, or, in Saintsburian speech, he is put aside as "*hors concours*" (p. 93). In regard to the comparative merits of these three he confesses that the reader has a right to demand his opinion. He recognizes the momentous consequences of his decision. But while he feels the gravity of the situation, he meets it manfully. He has, as he assures us, "no intention of shirking the difficulty." Therefore, after balancing the merits of the three poets, he determines upon the whole to give the palm to Spenser. To most of our frivolous race, all this will seem supremely comical. There are those, possibly including Mr. Saintsbury, who will look upon it as an act of "derring-do," worthy of the Red-Cross Knight himself. Shelley is too great a genius to be made permanently ridiculous by the antics of his unskilful admirers, whose performances have already largely contributed, and are likely long to contribute, to the gayety of nations. This, serious as it purports to be, is perhaps the most entertaining of any yet produced. We frankly confess to a suspicion that nobody would have noted the absence of Mr. Saintsbury's opinion on the matter if he had left it out, and that nobody will be much impressed by it now that he has put it in—unless it be some outraged fellow-devotee of the Shelley cult.

JAMES'S MANCHURIA.

The Long White Mountain; a Journey in Manchuria. By H. E. M. James. Longmans, Green & Co.

MANCHURIA, a name unknown to the natives, and coined by the French geographers from the vague term Manchau, was that part of the Chinese empire lying north of Corea and China proper, and between Mongolia and the Pacific Ocean. The Russians have helped mightily to make the term definite, and to rectify the frontiers with a science of which they are masters. First securing Siberia, they succeeded, during the Crimean war, in planting outposts on Chinese soil, and then, in 1860, claimed the occupied territory, which was in area as large as France. Ignatieff, seizing his supreme opportunity when China was helpless and the British napping, added this vast domain to the Czar's empire. China lost her outlet in the north Pacific, while Russia gained new seaports, and Corea a dreaded frontager. Manchuria now means that portion of the Chinese empire between Mongolia and the Russian maritime province of Primorsk; or, in Chinese view, the three provinces of Shing-King, Kirin, and He-Lung Kiang; that is, about one-half of the old region.

For ages Manchuria has been the breeding-ground of nations. In this land of mountains, rivers, glens, and grassy plains, fertile, healthful, and well-watered, have originated those various peoples called Ta-tars, or tributary tribes. Here have dwelt the ancestors of the Coreans and Japanese, the Huns, Turks, and Manchius. Once vassals of the Middle Kingdom, they have turned successful rebels or victorious conquerors. With almost the regularity of a law of nature, the roving and scattered tribes, acting under some obscure impulse, would consolidate and move southward into China, westward into Europe, or eastward into Corea or Japan. In different ages, and speaking varying dialects, these emigrants from the north Asian highlands would take or receive different names; though each wave of humanity was but another overflow of the same geyser-like spring whose rhythm forms the ethnic history of the oldest continent. Despite the Great Wall, first built to keep back these hordes, China has been again and again invaded, conquered, and governed by foreigners. In every case, however, the pen and letter have been in the long run mightier than the sword and spear. China has been able to tame, civilize, and educate her oppressors, and more than once overthrow the alien and reinstate a native dynasty. The last outburst from the north was that of the fierce Manchius who in 1644 conquered the whole empire and people, and imposed on every head that mark of subjugation, the queue. The Chinese, in turn, educating and civilizing their conquerors, have imposed their language on their rulers, and are now about to absorb all Ta-tar land. In this way, Manchuria has been alternately filled and depleted. Unlike previous movements, the emigration is now from the south. The new north-land is, to the crowded Chinese empire, what Manitoba and Australia are to Great Britain. So great is the pressure of population and so valuable the farms, that "the neutral strip" of fifty miles bordering Corea, unoccupied and palisaded off for 200 years, is now blooming with gardens and grain fields, while Chinese towns of brick and wood on the Yalu enjoy a good river trade. As the Chinese farmer rises at two A. M., works till dark, and goes to bed after supper in order to be in the field at the first croak of the raven, the waste "no-man's land" of a century ago is now a granary. Under the plea of abolishing the increasing brigandage, China was in 1874 just to Corea and generous to herself, and, in imitation of Russia, added this strip to her territory.

Of the three Manchurian provinces, Shing-King and Kirin are the most fertile, and abundantly stocked with horses, cattle, swine, and grain. The latter condensed into pork is transportable on the hoof, and the droves of pigs going southward are a noticeable feature of the roads. About one-third of the grain is further reduced in the still, and, as whiskey, serves to keep society from becoming too quiet. Evidently, from what one gathers from Mr. James's account, a railroad, when built, will pay dividends. The area of Manchuria is about 260,000 square miles, equal to Austria-Hungary, and larger than Texas. Its population is reckoned at from 20,000,000 to 30,000,000. Partly because of the immediate pressure and even menace of Russia, and partly from the sentimental necessity of holding inviolate the ancestral home of the imperial dynasty, the Pekin Government keeps this frontier most carefully guarded. The forts are armed with Krupp's cannon, and the rifles are of the latest and costliest pattern. Yet along with breech-loading repeaters, often rusty, the soldiery still cling to the bow and arrow; and the extravagant use of banners—survivals of the old lines of beaters and archers in the royal tiger hunts on the mountains—impedes soldierly movements, and furnishes jest to the Cossacks. Outside the towns and cities, despite the generally settled life and safe condition of the roads, the brigands are still able to earn a fair living and occasionally death by cangue and mutilation. Better roads, coinage, and government are still needed.

This information, with a clear, compact, and informing résumé of recent Chinese history, domestic and foreign, is furnished in the first six chapters of the work before us, which really comprises two books in one. The author, H. E. M. James, of the British Civil Service in India, is evidently accustomed to obtain and handle statistics and present them in readable form. His style is pleasing and straightforward, and combines qualities which make his book the best on the subject. A thoroughgoing "Britisher," he is very apt to build morality on revenue, and heartily believes in and defends the opium trade. He is fond, too, of flings at Americans, of whom he has the usual knowledge gained in *Punch*, in English novels, and possibly in the hotels and on railway cars.

At chapter vii he begins the story of his journeyings, and we enjoy the flavor of personal adventure. After years of desk-work in Bombay, he was fortunate in securing a fellow-traveller in Lieut. Younghusband, and the two resolved on exploring a land which they suspected the map-makers dreamed of rather than surveyed. Further, the Long White Mountain, the centre of Chinese and Corean myth and poetry, had never been ascended by a European. Their journey, in 1886, was made on pony and mule. Concerning the latter beast, Mr. James has much to say. One familiar with men and mules on the Raritan and Lehigh tow-paths will declare that between these and the Manchiu variety there is surprisingly little difference. Geographically at antipodes, they possess those original and peculiar touches of nature that make the whole world kin. Of course there is a difference in the Englishman's and Yankee's way of telling a funny thing, but the mule in Mr. James's pages amply corrects any tendency to dulness. Despite midges and gadflies outdoors, and mosquitoes and cockroaches inside, the travellers, in full physical health, and well fortified with insect-powder, enjoyed every hour. Like ships that in strange seas sail over islands, cities, and land which the unrevised map declares ought to be just there, but which are not, the travellers easily and unconsciously passed over the "chains of snowy peaks, from 8,000 to 10,000 feet high," which even the maps of the Royal Geographical Society still preserve on paper. They found, instead, chains of volcanic hills from 3,000 to 8,000 feet high. This highest figure was reached only by the lordly peak called by the Manchius Shan Alin, by the Coreans Pék-tu (White Head), and by the Chinese Chang-peh Shan, or Long White Mountain. In addition to its interest in physical geography, legend locates here the miraculous origin of the founder of the imperial Manchiu dynasty. A pure virgin, bathing in the Dragon-Prince's pool in the crater-top of the mountain—of which a beautiful colored picture is given as the frontispiece of the book—conceived from eating the red fruit dropped by a magpie, the bird now held sacred by the Manchius. To the child born of this virgin, the sons of Heaven trace their line. From this pool also, according to tradition, issue the rills which form not only the Sungari, but also the Tumen and the Yalu, which, if true, makes Corea an island. Despite having lived on Manchurian pork and beans, and thus economized, the travellers' provisions failed, and for their stomachs' sake they were obliged to take the back track without fully solving this problem. The adjective "long" in the mountain's name refers either to time or distance, and that of "white" most probably to the general color of the rocks and gravel rather than to the snow which covers the ever-white peak only a portion of the year.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The author's journeys into the other provinces, and into Russian territory bordering the Pacific Ocean, allowed him to study the Cossacks, and especially the Coreans, who in late years have so numerously emigrated across the Tumen. His narrative, besides great interest to the student, the would-be traveller, and the missionary, has value to military men. His powers of observation are excellent, and his very interesting paragraphs on religion, superstitions, archæology, natural resources, household equipment, inn and caravansary life, mule behavior, and many other subjects, tempt us sorely to quotation. Meeting most of the Scotch and French missionaries, he gives his sympathetic judgments of them and their work, and in crisp sentences the results of his conversations with them. As a popular and accurate description of Manchuria, we heartily commend this book, which, in mechanical outfit, has a dress worthy of its sterling contents. Print, paper, binding, map, illustrations, index, and furnishings are of the best.

THE DICTIONARY OF NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

Dictionary of National Biography. Edited by Leslie Stephen. Vols. XII-XIV. Conder-D'Eyncourt. Macmillan & Co.

THE reviewer has often to contrast his own slowness in reading, pondering, and expressing judgment, with the rate at which a work like this Dictionary is put through the press. Certainly we should have been prompter with these volumes if we had had anything further to say in praise of one of the best edited, as it is one of the most useful and important, enterprises of the kind known to our day and generation. We have, we believe, turned every leaf of the series thus far, stopping to read and to enjoy, and we have grounds for saying that the editor and his staff have maintained a remarkable evenness of execution and justness of proportion, and above all a spirit of simple truthfulness which becomes the more impressive the more one makes himself acquainted with the contents. Doubtless we owe a great deal of this excellence to Mr. Stephen himself, in whom these literary and moral qualities are conspicuous, and whose articles (collectively, the best in the Dictionary) are models for all his colaborers. He has known, we may be sure, how to exclude what was irrelevant or inflated, and to insist on the compactest rendering of essential facts, without barring out characteristic and enlivening anecdote such as abounds in these volumes, and makes them companionable for the idle as for the serious hour.

We have heretofore called our readers' attention to the fact that this Dictionary not only supplies for the great British worthies biographical sketches unsurpassed in length, or in authority, or in literary grace, by those in the best cyclopædias; it also most properly and helpfully records the lives of a vast middle class whose names either never get into the dictionaries at all, or are inadequately and briefly dismissed. One cannot exaggerate the help thus afforded the student of every branch of human activity, and particularly of English literature. Nowhere else, for example (annotations apart), exists such a convenient and satisfactory biographical complement to Pepys's and Evelyn's Diaries, to Boswell's Johnson. We have also pointed out the interest which Americans have in this Dictionary, especially in the case of the founders of the several colonies, but also all along the line down to the present time. Not only are we concerned with the Rev. John Davenport, the head of the New Haven settlement; with Stephen Day, the first New England printer; with Thomas Danforth, Deputy Governor of Massachusetts and first treasurer of Harvard College; with Copley, the artist, and his more renowned son, Lord Lyndhurst (both native Bostonians). Dampier, too, "that bold sea-rover," who took a breathing spell between his piracies in Virginia; Captain Cook, who skirted our Pacific coast; General and Admiral Cornwallis, our foes in the Revolution; the Royalist De Lanceys; the Earl of Stair, who opposed in the Lords the making war on the colonies; Dr. Thomas Cooper, friend and follower to America of Priestley, and defendant in one of our famous state trials as the libeller of President John Adams; Sir John Compton, who got into diplomatic hot water for recruiting soldiers for the Crimean war in a land lately bent on buying "Hungarian bonds"; "Fanny" Wright (Mme. Darusmont), an original experimenter in slave emancipation, and forerunner of woman's rights; George Frederick Cooke, the actor, whose body lies buried in this city; Sir Samuel Cunard, son of a Philadelphia merchant—these and many others touch our history in various memorable ways. Shall we not add Darwin to the list, through his American friendships, and notably with Asa Gray?

The first volume of this Dictionary was published in 1885, but a wise discretion has permitted the introduction of persons whose death occurred after that date. Thus, Samuel Cousins, the engraver, died in 1887. It is curious to observe that Edward Dutton Cook, here commemorated as having contributed the dramatic and theatrical lives in A to the first two volumes, died in 1883, before they appeared. The greatest names in the three volumes before us are Anthony Ashley Cooper (first Earl of Shaftesbury), the poet Cowper, Cranmer, Cromwell, George Eliot, Cruikshank, Curran, Dalton, Darwin, Sir Humphrey Davy, Defoe, and De Quincey. Of minor importance, if not all less known, are John Douglas Cook, founder of the *Saturday Review*; Sir Wm. Fothergill Cooke, joint inventor of the telegraph with Wheatstone; George Crabbe; John Wilson Croker; Crompton, inventor of the spinning mule; Cruden, of the Bible Concordance, whose career was a very singular one; William Cumming, the pioneer in modern ophthalmology; Dallmeyer, the optician; Grace Darling; Thomas Day, author of 'Sanford and Merton,' and perhaps the most amusing character not devoid of nobility to be met with in these pages; John T. Delane, editor of the *Times*; and the Chevalier D'Éon. Mr. Stephen has reserved for himself Cowper, whose name he remarks that the poet himself pronounced Cooper, whose letters he regards as the best in the language, and whose poetry, he thinks, has been best judged by Sainte-Beuve; Crabbe, in whose favor, intellectually considered, he cites some eminent and weighty admirers, including the late Edward Fitzgerald, yet seems to approve his "system (less common than might be wished) of periodical 'incremations'" of his voluminous MSS.; George Eliot, who is rather briefly treated, but with marked discrimination; Defoe; and De Quincey, on whose best work and his English style Mr. Stephen bestows the highest praise. All these articles can be read with the greatest profit, and should be accessible in every library in the land—to say nothing of "every gentleman's library," whither this Dictionary should find its way, even if merely in recognition of so laudable and costly an enterprise.

We have not examined these latest issues for errors, but we will instance one in the sketch of the eminent philanthropist, James Cropper, whose death occurred in 1840, not, as stated, in 1841.

What I Remember. By Thomas Adolphus Trollope. Harper & Bros. 1888.

MR. TROLLOPE is not quite an octogenarian; but, as he says, he has "lived a long time," and his memory has stored up a great deal of interesting information gleaned from many lands and in contact with many distinguished persons. He has had no adventures and shared in no great events; his life has been essentially a private one, with considerable literary work in it and a large portion of social enjoyment; he owes more to his circumstances than to himself for what makes his recollections worth publishing, and hence the subject of this volume is not so much his own autobiography as the people and the things he has observed. The controlling influences of his own career were his parents. His father made the earlier years gloomy with his misfortunes and his bad temper, though the son speaks of him always with respect for his strong qualities and with affectionate condonement of his weaknesses; and his mother made his literary future possible for him, and gave it direction. We already know the family from his brother Anthony's account; and, while he endeavors to soften the harder lines of that narrative, and particularly to mitigate the passages descriptive of his mother's last years, he leaves us with substantially the same impression of the character of the family. Mrs. Trollope was the capable head of it, and after her journey to America had proved profitable in the unexpected way of making her famous, she was its real support. The sketch of her, however, writing novels on a diet of green tea and laudanum, attending meanwhile to her dying son and her impracticable husband, is one that excites commiseration; and, after the worst of her ills were gone by, her journeys in search of material for volumes of travel, and, finally, for a place to settle in for the remainder of her life, are far from being cheerful to contemplate. The life of her son was happier. Probably, even in what seems to us his dreary school days at Harrow and Winchester, and his hardly more fortunate sojourn at Oxford, he had more pleasure than the reader would think possible; and after he had failed to find his calling in pedagogy, and had settled on the career of a literary hack in Florence, he thought himself very well off. He was twice married, and in the retrospect regards his lot as a felicitous one; and this contentment with what he has been and has enjoyed, diffuses through the pages a cordial and optimistic spirit which is the chief ingredient in the pleasure his story affords.

The narrative is principally made up of unexciting anecdotes, and the best of these are about eccentric persons, notable in their little communities, but not known beyond them. Trollope was a traveller, in a sense, for most of his life, since he spent it mainly in Italy, and naturally saw many people in whom only his eyes took interest. From America he brought back little or nothing except a hospitality for things American, but in Paris he saw Chateaubriand and in Vienna Metternich, and in Italy he formed acquaintance with Dickens, the Brownings, George Eliot, Lewes, and Garibaldi. He brings to mind the curious state of literary Paris at that time when his mother wrote of Victor Hugo, "I might say that of him France seems to be ashamed," and he testifies to "the absolute truth of the above representation of the prevalent Parisian feeling at that day respecting Victor Hugo." He repeats the remark of Metternich that "the most unpleasant part of the circumstance connected with dealing with Napoleon arose from the fact that he was not a gentleman in any sense

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the word, or anything like one," and adds that of course Metternich was not thinking of the matter of birth. He prints several letters of the English nobilities mentioned above, but they have no interest, intellectually or personally. A jaunt with George Eliot into the mountains north of Florence, and some glimpses of Mrs. Browning, are the best he has to relate, and the singular fact that Landor, of impeccable English, dropped his aspirates, is the only striking reminiscence of that great literary name. Garibaldi he saw once alone, when the General made an early morning call on him before he was up, and he describes the appearance of the hero in his red shirt, gray trousers, and foraging cap, with great particularity, even to the fine lines round his eyes and the steady far-away gaze of their clear blue orbs. They talked of Italy, "of course": "'As for the priests,' said he, 'they ought all to be put to death, without exception and without delay.' 'Rather a strong measure,' I ventured to say. 'Not a bit too strong, not a bit,' he rejoined warmly. 'Do we not put assassins to death? And is not the man who murders your soul worse than the man who only kills your body?'" Afterwards he saw Garibaldi at the end of his career in Palermo, when he was borne through the crowded streets on a litter, and all the people stood silent for fear of exciting him with their shouts. But of the Italian Revolution he has really very little to say.

The reader of these pages, however, as has been indicated, must not look for anything very novel, exceptional, or striking. It is a book of gossip, of conversation made public, memories of the ways and the look of old London, and the unreformed schools, of Paris and Brittany, Vienna in the days when the city wall protected aristocratic society, of Florence and Lucca and Modena in the times of the Grand Dukes, with their queer little courts and receptions at which the guests, even the English, filled their pockets with fowls and hams and jelly with busy and open hands, the Americans alone refraining; and all this world is far enough away now to have the attraction of manners gone by. One bit that is of literary interest here we find in connection with Sir George Musgrave, whose character is admirably drawn. He is the owner of the Luck of Edenhall, and, though a careful man, insists on his guests handling freely the magic goblet, in order that the "Luck" may have some meaning. A footnote informs us that he once "picked a crow" with Longfellow for representing "the 'Luck' to have been broken, which Sir George considered a flight of imagination quite transcending all permissible poetical license." Other similar trifles there are which we might readily select, but we have given a taste of the plums, and the reader can better suit his own palate for himself. He will not weary in Mr. Trollope's company if he makes modest demands, and has an interest in human nature in its eccentric and grotesque forms—especially if he is a judicious skipper.

Addresses (Educational).—Uppingham School Songs and Borth Lyrics.—Poems and Translations. By Edward Thring, (late) Headmaster of Uppingham School. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

By the death of Rev. Edward Thring, the distinguished Headmaster of Uppingham School, England has lately lost the most conspicuous figure which has appeared in her school world since the time of Arnold. He is the only English schoolmaster of the present generation who can be said to have exercised a distinct influence on educational thought outside of England. His 'Theory and Practice of Education,' reviewed in these columns five years ago, has had a wide circulation in America. Though based on English experience, its vigorous dealing with the fundamental problems of education appealed to earnest thinkers everywhere, and many an American teacher would acknowledge a deep debt of gratitude to Mr. Thring's pages for stimulus and inspiration. What he preached about school work and organization in his books, Thring tried to realize in actual fact in the great school which he created, and over which he ruled for more than thirty years. Of the scope and direction of his work at Uppingham not much has hitherto been known in America, but an article on the subject is, we understand, soon to be published by one of our foremost popular magazines, and doubtless in due time some record of his strenuous life, with its aims and accomplishments, will be given to the public.

From the preface written by his daughter, we learn that the manuscripts for the three new volumes of his writings which are the subject of this notice, were placed in the hands of his publishers only a few days before he was seized with the illness which proved so suddenly fatal in October last. We are also told that the two volumes of verse were more particularly intended for the boys, past and present, of Uppingham School. Part of this verse has something more than a local significance, to which reference will be made hereafter, but a wider interest will be felt in the seven addresses on educational subjects which make up the larger volume. One of these, written by request for the Teachers' Association of Minnesota, and read before that body, will have a special interest for American readers. Two deal chiefly with the question of women's education, and the other four with general aspects of the great teaching problem. In all these addresses, teachers will find much strong and stimulating food for thought. They are not calculated to induce complacency with accepted methods and popular ideals of education. Thring's whole life was a fight against cramping tradition on the one hand, and, on the other, the tinkering interference of State-appointed amateurs with the skilled teacher and his original power. None was more ready than he to cast aside the deadness and narrowness of old systems, but to have the dead hand of official routine applied to the schools of a country seemed to him a greater danger still. To him, all true education is life acting on life; and throughout these addresses we find a steady protest against influences which in school work hinder the freedom of this action. Too much external control, too much inspection, with its fixed patterns and standards, excessive competition, the idolatry of prize winning, the stuffing of the mind with mere masses of knowledge—all these interfere with the healthy development of life power.

"Like all other high arts, life must have free play or there can be no teaching." "Teaching and examinations are deadly enemies as soon as examinations cramp the liberty necessary for teaching." "A few fragments of knowledge, acquired at the cost of blunted hope, and loss of power, and false ideas of life, and no skill, and no eye for skill, are not worth the cost."

Mr. Thring points out that in a busy, democratic century, which will be satisfied with nothing short of universal education—a century, too, which has seen a greater expansion of the facts which make up the sum of human knowledge than all previous ones put together—the educational problem takes new forms, and that we cannot rightly deal with it unless we have regard to its actual data. This is the pregnant way in which he summarizes them for the teachers of Minnesota:

> "All are to be taught.
> And knowledge is infinite.
> And life is short.
> And average brains are weak.
> And few have time to spare.
> And time is short even to them."

To grapple with this problem, he urges that we must first "smash up the idolatry of knowledge," and let the aim of our education be primarily to call out thought and strengthen mind—in his opinion a higher and entirely different process from putting in knowledge and heaping up facts. We cannot make every mind a comprehensive receptacle of knowledge, but we can and ought to give to the average mind intelligent skill in the use of its own powers. Mr. Thring lays great stress upon the necessity that honor to lessons should be shown by the rooms in which they are given. "Life and death," he says, "can depend on a room. Christianity itself cannot lodge large families in one room in a civilized country and remain Christian. The Christianity either breaks up the one room into many, or the one room breaks up the Christianity." So, after describing the ordinary schoolroom with its shabbiness, its "walls bare, unsightly, and grimy, or grimly austere with maps and blackboards," he adds that "it is hard to escape something of the pig if lodged in a sty. The schoolboy has not escaped, and never will, till 'Honor to Lessons' is the first article in the nation's secular creed. Everything that meets the eye ought to be as perfect, according to the work and workers, as human skill can make it." In this connection a strong plea is made for more attention to pictorial teaching, with its power of leaving vivid impressions, and suggestions are given for making the decoration of schoolrooms serve high educational purposes.

Perhaps we could not better illustrate the prevailing spirit of these vigorous addresses, which we trust will find many American readers, than by quoting one final passage: "The true definition of a teacher is, 'one who sows seeds of life and fosters them.'" It was in trying to realize this definition in his own life work that Thring became the greatest English schoolmaster of the present generation.

We have only space left to refer very briefly to the volume of verse entitled 'Uppingham School Songs and Borth Lyrics.' Matthew Arnold, in one of his critical essays, remarks that "the future of poetry is immense." The volume before us certainly suggests one vast field of influence which our poets have left as yet almost untouched. The man or woman who could cast the occupations, trials, temptations, and dreams of the schoolboy's life into the furnace of poetic thought, and give us songs glowing with true poetic fire, and strong to stimulate and inspire the young, has before him a whole world which even genius might well feel proud to conquer. Mr. Thring's efforts in this direction are an interesting study. The high and pure sentiment which marks all his verse is seen not to be incongruous with hearty sympathy for the boisterous energy of youth.

Wedded to the music which he cultivated so assiduously as a part of his school system, these songs must have had a healthy and inspiring influence on the boys for whom they were written. As we have said before, most of his verse in these two small volumes is of local interest, but in the attempt to idealize the round of school life, as in many other things, he was a pioneer, and one whose example is worthy of study and emulation.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Impressions de Théâtre. Première Série. Par Jules Lemaitre. Paris: Lecène & Oudin.

M. LEMAITRE has here collected some of the dramatic feuilletons which he contributes every Monday to the *Journal des Débats.* A second series of the same papers is to be published about this time, and even then the two volumes will be only a selection from the *Lundis* which have been appearing without interruption since the latter part of 1885. A few of those in the present volume belong to that year, two-thirds of the remainder to the next, and the other third to 1887. The feuilletons are grouped according to subjects and without regard to dates; they are seldom reprinted entire, but the portions given seem to be republished as they at first appeared, without alterations or additions. Even in their original form, many of these papers were not so much dramatic criticism as fine and delicate literary appreciation of the authors and the works under consideration, and a few lines at the end were all that M. Lemaitre gave to the theatrical performance which was the occasion for his remarks. Frequently the greater part of the feuilleton was occupied by a criticism of some newly issued volume or article, which, whatever its subject might be, became dramatic under his treatment.

When M. Taine published his two famous chapters on Napoleon in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and later when Prince Napoleon replied to them by his volume, 'Napoléon et ses détracteurs,' M. Lemaitre made one of his most amusing and most dramatic *Lundis* about each publication. These were as sparkling and lively as if some comedy had given rise to them, and at the same time they were full of profound literary penetration and judgment. He not only presented the two writers under the most unexpected and varied aspects, but lightly and without pretension made some of the most sensible and brilliant criticisms upon them that have been brought out by M. Taine's daring portrait of the great Emperor. M. Lemaitre always writes from a literary and philosophical point of view. He compares a play of George Sand with one of Alfred de Musset acted upon the same stage in September, 1887, and the theme of his argument is in the differences between the romantic and the poetic drama. He writes concerning the ballet—there is a group of half-a dozen articles with this heading at the end of the volume—and behind the dramatic critic there appears at every turn the artist, the poet, the scholar, and the philosophical thinker. The wealth and variety of M. Lemaitre's critical faculty is nowhere better shown than in these last papers. The one on the Ashantees at the Jardin d'Acclimatation, dated September, 1887, is perhaps the most brilliant, and excited the most comment at the time; but all, with their half-paradoxical method of presenting new views or old ones under new and fresh aspects, are full of matter for reflection.

This many-sided critic has his limitations and incapacities which are not the least interesting revelations of his personality. Some of the feuilletons in which he treats of Shakspere show this in a very marked degree. The one on the adaptation in French verse of "Much Ado about Nothing," which has recently been represented for some months at the Odéon, is an instance. In these, however, he confesses that he is judging from an entirely French point of view, and it is at least doubtful whether he really feels as incapable as he represents himself to be of appreciating what seems to escape him.

The Voyage of the Fleetwing. By C. M. Newell. 12mo, pp. 443. Boston: De Wolf, Fiske & Co. 1888.

IT is an old remark that the matter of a good book is more important than its style, but Captain Newell would have done well to remember that without an effective style the best matter is thrown away. Here is abundant material—the adventures of an old-fashioned whaling cruise; but the author has told his story in a manner which does it great injustice. Similar scenes are described with wonderful power and felicity in Herman Melville's 'Moby Dick,' the classic story of whaling adventure; and it is with work like this that Captain Newell's present story (as well as an earlier one covering similar ground, and called 'Pehe Nui') must challenge comparison. As a story of exciting adventure based upon large experience of whaling life, Captain Newell's 'Fleetwing' has great reality; but its effect is sadly marred, not to say destroyed, by faults of obscurity or excess in the telling. Least of all can a story-teller afford to dispense with the literary element in his work. 'Peter Parley's Universal History,' after fifty years of use in American schools, remains in great demand; it is now a popular text-book in Japan, and is one of the most profitable of school-books, and why? For a reason not very generally known, namely, that 'Peter Parley's History' was written in chief part by Nathaniel Hawthorne. And if style tells in the school-book, much more does it tell in a story. Captain Newell's recital of perils and adventures is full of life and go, but it lacks the one thing needful; boys will read it, but the crudity of its style will close its pages to maturer readers. It is only those who already have knowledge and interest in the subject that he describes who will take an interest in the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Gen. H. L. Defence of the Sea-Coast of the United States. D. Van Nostrand.
Allen, W. Governor Chamberlain's Administration in South Carolina: A Chapter of Reconstruction in the Southern States. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Ballard, H. H. Three Kingdoms. Handbook of the Agassiz Association. Writers' Publishing Co.
Bankside Shakespeare. Edited by Appleton Morgan. New York: Shakespeare Society.
Beecher, W. C., and Scoville, Rev. S. Biography of Henry Ward Beecher. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Blackwell, Prof. J. S. Manual of German Prefixes and Suffixes. Henry Holt & Co.
Boggett, Wm. Key to the Mysteries of Water, Electricity, and Heat. London: Trübner & Co.
Booth, Rev. H. M. The Sunrise, Noonday, and Sunset of the Day of Grace. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Buck, J. H. Old Plate, Ecclesiastical, Decorative, and Domestic. Gorham Manufacturing Co.
Cameron, Mrs. H. L. A Life's Mistake: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Chaucer, G. The Knightes Tale. Clark & Maynard. 12 cents.
Cook, Rev. J. Sermons Preached in St. Andrew's Church, Quebec. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Custer, Mrs. E. B. Tenting on the Plains. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Dabney, Prof. R. H. Causes of the French Revolution. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Deighton, K. Shakspere's Much Ado about Nothing. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Dimsdale, M. S. Livy. Book XXI. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dods, Rev. M. The Book of Genesis. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Dove, P. E. Domesday Studies. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Drummond, J. Philo Judæus; or, the Jewish-Alexandrian Philosophy in its Development and Completion. 2 vols. London: Williams & Norgate.
Ellis, Rev. G. E. The Puritan Age and Rule in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Erckmann-Chatrian. L'Ami Fritz. Wm. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
"Good Form" in England. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Greene, W. B. Cloudrifts at Twilight: Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Hare, A. J. C. Days near Paris. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Henderson, I. Agatha Page: a Parable. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Hood, E. Paxton. The Throne of Eloquence: Great Preachers, Ancient and Modern. Funk & Wagnalls.
Hood, E. Paxton. The Vocation of the Preacher. Funk & Wagnalls.
Horsford, E. N. Discovery of America by the Norsemen. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hughes, A. Geography for Schools. Part I. Practical Geography. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

THE sixty-third annual exhibition at the Academy of Design contains 598 works in all. Only seventeen or eighteen of these are sculptures. The current exhibitions of American art are all alike in this respect, consisting almost entirely of pictures, and what few examples of the sculptor's art they may include are placed at random in the picture galleries, and are not even thought important enough to have a separate department in the catalogue. The present Academy exhibition, however, though the display of sculpture is comparatively meagre, shows a marked advance on its predecessors, in the superior quality of at least three of the pieces of sculpture which it contains. We refer, of course, to Mr. St. Gaudens's two works, and Mr. Warner's excellent bust of Mr. Alden Weir. The latter, which is here shown in bronze, was exhibited in plaster some years ago, if we mistake not, at one of the exhibitions of the Society of American Artists. It is well worth seeing again in its present form, in which its simplicity in the treatment of details and its fine ensemble are admirably expressed in the severer material. Mr. St. Gaudens's appearance as an exhibitor at the Academy is the most promising sign of the long-looked-for improvement in this the oldest and best-known of American exhibitions; and the presence of his two works, "Bust of General Sherman," No. 597, and "Portrait of a Lady—Medallion," No. 598, is of itself enough to make the sculpture exhibition a notable one. The distinguishing characteristic of the bust of Gen. Sherman is virility. It is, above all else, manly, firm, and vigorous. Granting that the sculptor was fortunate in his model, the treatment of this head calls for particular notice as to the way in which the characteristic is expressed. Here, as in the Lincoln, the sculptor has had to deal with a head which in no way suggests the classic ideal, and which has yet such a strong personality, such an individual style, that it produces very much the same impression of grandeur in looking at it as one receives from some of the antiques. In this treatment of an American type Mr. St. Gaudens was eminently successful in the Lincoln, which differs, however, from the bust of Gen. Sherman in having the whole figure with its fine, large lines to give it a reposeful feeling—one of the best things about it—while the head of Gen. Sherman is all moving energy. The firm-featured visage of the soldier, even in such details as the wrinkles in the brow and the creases in the weather-beaten cheeks, and the stiff beard and hair, is reproduced with fidelity; yet details are so well subordinated to the ensemble that a breadth of mass is obtained which is rare enough in portrait busts to be especially mentioned here. The simple handling of the collar, and the excellent effect given by the half-raised lapels of the military coat, set the head off well, and the pedestal, with its laurel bordering cleverly incorporated in the design, is fitly proportioned.

In the "Portrait of a Lady" Mr. St. Gaudens has made a delicate relief in marble of a lady with a bridal veil. The figure is about one-third life size and three-quarter length, and is tastefully framed in a wooden plaque of creamy white, which accords with the colder tones of the marble. In these days of mere prettiness and over-elaboration of stuffs, which are such prevalent vices in what sculpture comes to the United States from Italy, it is worth noting that in this work of Mr. St.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Gaudens, in which he has to deal with just such a subject as nine out of ten Italian sculptors of our time would be sure to make a botch of, he has treated his subject with a simplicity that forms its greatest charm. It is conceived and carried out in harmony with the tenets of the modern French school, with a certain delicate grace of his own which always makes itself felt in Mr. St. Gaudens's work of this class.

"Portrait of a Lady," No. 260, "Venetian Street," No. 213, and "Venetian Interior," No. 219, are three works by John S. Sargent. It is Mr. Sargent's first exhibition at the Academy, and it is a most brilliant début. Those who remember the portrait of a young lady in black with a rose in her hand, exhibited by Mr. Sargent at the Society of American Artists in 1883, or the two portraits of an elderly gentleman and lady in the Society's exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum in 1886, and retain the impression of quiet dignity made by contemplation of them, will perhaps receive something very like a shock at the first glance at the "Portrait of a Lady" at the Academy. The other portraits were reserved; this one is aggressive. In the former works, ease and grace were united with the most skilful painting; in this later one we find restlessness and a sort of brilliant dash, with painting quite as skilful as before, but with less of absolute truth to nature. The head, which is the principal thing of course, is quite the best part of this portrait, for the arms are none too well drawn and none too well modelled, and, like the chest, have more of the false brilliancy of chalk or powder than the clear luminosity of a white skin covering palpitating flesh. But the head is fresh in color and thoroughly alive. One may not like over-well the treatment of the whites of the eyes, which are startlingly white, nor the cherry-red *tache* of the under lip, and one may object that simplicity is in these parts of the painting of the head pushed too far; but it is well to remember that the artist must have determined to sacrifice something of subtlety in order to obtain such brilliancy of effect. Brilliancy is the quality which best describes this portrait, and it is a brilliancy most becoming in this intensely modern piece of work. It has the air of modernness which pervades the drawing-room without a trace of the studied ceremony of the court; it is an attractive head that grows more and more real and living as you look. Considered purely from the point of view of the technician, it is one of the very cleverest things of the year's art.

Of the two Venetian pictures, though there is much delicacy of observation and subtile painting in the picture of the street, with its graceful figures, of the girl, whose pink dress is partly covered by her clinging black shawl, and the men at the doorway, we find more solid merits than these in the "Venetian Interior," No. 219. This picture of a sombre room, with its group of girls stringing beads in the foreground, is the work of a veritable artist. It is so essentially a work that appeals to those who are capable of appreciating art purely for its own sake, that it seems out of place on the Academy walls, where there is so much that is disturbing by comparison. Admirable in its quiet color scheme, full of atmosphere, and delightfully painted throughout, it is one of those pictures whose charm never fades and of which one can never grow weary.

Mr. Chase, whose absence has been remarked for a decade at the Academy, makes a strong and representative exhibition this year. One portrait, a charming head of a young lady, in a dress of pink, which is notable for sympathetic drawing and delicate contrasts of color, is "Portrait of Miss B.," No. 214, and another, a seated figure of an elderly lady seen in profile. Dignified, of excellent style, and showing the artist's appreciation of quiet tones and his ability in harmonizing the figure and the costume, with the accessories, in a complete ensemble at its best, is the "Portrait of Mrs. G.," No. 337. Besides these are three small out-of-door works of scenes in the neighborhood of Brooklyn, excellent in the rendering of things as they are and the picturesqueness of the suburbs of the city: "Rotten Row—Brooklyn Navy-yard," No. 112; "Summertime," No. 298; and "Peace Scene—Fort Hamilton," No. 350.

"Portrait of Mr. John Gilbert," No. 381, by J. Alden Weir, is an excellent canvas, and one of the best portraits Mr. Weir has exhibited of late. And "Portrait," No. 12, seems to possess fine qualities of color, and to be a complete and artistic picture of a lady in a costume in which a dusky yellow is the principal color note; but it is placed in the most garish light in the galleries, and suffers from juxtaposition with some of the canvases which, of all those that might be found in the exhibition, are least suited to the subtle tonality of Mr. Weir's work. There are numerous portraits in this exhibition, more than fifty in all, and, as is usually the case, some of the best work on the walls, as well as some of the worst, are to be found in them. There is good drawing and painting in the small portrait of a gentleman, No. 540, by Montague Flagg, and much solidity of modelling and unity of effect in "Portrait of Prof. Barker of the University of Pennsylvania," No. 405, by Thomas Eakins. "Portrait of Miss Dora Wheeler," No. 286, by Amanda Brewster, is the only out-of-doors effect in portraiture worthy of mention in the exhibition, and it is placed so high that its sterling merit can be but half appreciated. It is simply painted and agreeable in color, and of excellent style. "Portrait of Alexander Hamilton," No. 156, and "Portrait of a Lady," No. 456, are characteristic works by Eastman Johnson, and "Portrait of Mr. David Dudley Field," No. 114, by Robert Gordon Hardie, is an excellent full length in the "official" style in which the painter has successfully followed the somewhat conventional methods of some of Bonnat's work. A three-quarter length of a lady in black, "Portrait," No. 310, by Frank Fowler; a three-quarter length of a lady in a gown of dull orange hue, "Portrait," No. 582, by W. M. J. Rice; and a portrait of a lady with a fur robe and long gloves on her hands, "Portrait of Mrs. E. M. H.," No. 362, by Wyatt Eaton, may be fitly mentioned together with these in closing a somewhat long but excellent list. It is one of the best features of the present exhibition that room has been found for so many good portraits, and a convincing sign of progress in Academy traditions.

Quite the most remarkable picture in the exhibition, and the one which is most impressive as the work of a strongly individual talent, is "Eight Bells," No. 370, by Winslow Homer. This picture of two seamen on the deck of a coasting vessel, quadrant in hand, taking the noon-day observation, the figures painted in sunlight with a heavy blackish sky of breaking clouds, and the rolling waves green and white-capped, forming the background, is painted in Mr. Homer's usual robust manner. The effect of the glinting sunshine as it flashes on the wet timbers of the ship and the wet oilskins of the sailor men is realistic to a degree, and has a rare look of truth. Compared with his "Undertow" of last year, it possesses all the qualities that made that picture so remarkable, yet in both composition and the purely technical side of painting it is a distinct advance on it. Mr. Homer now stands in a place by himself as the most original and one of the strongest of American painters.

In marked contrast to the rugged and at times heavy technique of Mr. Homer's work is the delicate and elegant composition by Mr. H. Siddons Mowbray of a receding group of fairy figures floating gently and with rhythmic movement over a grassy meadow that stretches away to distant hills gilded by the rays of the setting sun, "Evening Breeze," No. 433. To the task of thus depicting ideal figures and investing them with the look of motion in the air, Mr. Mowbray has brought his well-known talent as a draughtsman, and has painted these dainty sprites in the most charming arrangement of harmonious tints. It is a bit of dreamy fancy "materialized" on canvas with a technical precision that is delightful to behold, and it is safe to say that nothing more charming in imaginative art has been seen at the Academy.

Mr. T. W. Dewing, whose work is nothing if not refined, contributes a small picture of a lady in a yellow dress. The figure is seated in a chair, and is seen in profile. "Lady in Yellow" (No. 417) is the title, and the picture contains nothing further than what is indicated in the name. Even the chair is almost hidden from view by the ample skirt of the flowing yellow robe. With so simple a subject, however, Mr. Dewing has made one of the best pictures of the exhibition. Its charm lies in its very simplicity, and the artist has brought all his skill to bear in the expression of the charming head. It is drawn with admirable delicacy, and is tender and full in color. It is impossible to describe the charm of the well-poised little head and the sweetness of the gentle face.

Mr. Robert Blum brings from Venice a striking picture of "Venetian Bead Stringers," No. 355, which represents a half-dozen girls in many colored dresses sitting at work in a court-yard, a white wall with green shutters on the windows behind them. The picture has many excellent qualities, and is notably good in drawing. It is brilliant and gay in effect without being gaudy, a fault it might easily have if the subject were painted by a less cultivated colorist than Mr. Blum. The picture abounds in good *morceaux*. "Their Pride," No. 364, by Thomas Hovenden, is quite the best of recent pictures, with subjects taken from negro life, painted by this well-known artist. It is an interior with a number of figures, and these, as well as the room and its furniture, are broadly and solidly painted. The effect of atmosphere is well felt, and the canvas is a complete one as regards composition and arrangement of light and shadow. Other prominent figure painters worthily represented in the various galleries are J. Carroll Beckwith, who contributes an excellent "Head," No. 142, which is well constructed and luminous in painting; Edwin H. Blashfield, whose picture called "Improvisatrice," No. 442, shows a three-quarter-length figure of a girl with an antique stringed instrument in her hands; Francis D. Millet, whose single figure of a young woman in Greek costume of white standing on a marble terrace, with her delicately outlined head in relief against dark-foliaged trees in the background, makes a charming picture, and is called "On the Terrace," No. 297; George De F. Brush, who exhibits a well-conceived composition depicting a scene of Aztec life and customs, called "The Sculptor and the King," No. 222, which is remarkable for accuracy of drawing and careful execution; Francis C. Jones, whose picture, "The Favorite Grandchild," No. 261, is a well-painted interior with three figures,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in which the light is cleverly disposed; Irving R. Wiles, whose "Shady Lawn," No. 205, is a study of out-of-doors effect on landscape and figure marked by much truth of observation; Will H. Low, who contributes in "By the Fountain," No. 488, one of the few nudes in the exhibition, and one which is both refined in sentiment and soundly painted; Herbert Denman, whose small picture of a single figure of a young girl, "The Window Seat," No. 211, is a fresh and delicate bit of color; and William T. Dannat, who exhibits a strongly painted study of a Spanish girl in black, "Castanet Player," No. 277.

In landscapes there is a large and on the whole excellent showing. Mr. Inness is represented by one of the best of his recent works, "A September Afternoon," No. 449, a handsome canvas, powerful and subdued in color, and of the finest decorative quality with its rich tones of browns and pinks, and its puissant notes of deep blue in the sky. Mr. Gifford is seen at his best in a winter landscape of a frozen river, snow-covered hills, and dull gray sky, "On the Harlem," No. 311, and Mr. Tryon shows some of his most subtle qualities of painting in "A Pasture, October," No. 152, and a fine effect of sky and water in "Clearing after a Storm—New Bedford Harbor," No. 204. "A Rhode Island River," No. 138, by R. W. Van Boskerck, a large canvas with a river whose tree-covered banks are reflected on its surface, and a summer sky with warm tinted clouds, is strong in color and effective in its ensemble. "The Late Moon," No. 223, by Kenyon Cox, is an effect of moonrise on the shore of a lake, in which the peculiar orange light of the moon when it comes above the horizon only when the night is half gone, is excellently rendered, and in which the midnight sky of blue, tinted by the reddish golden light of the moon, is truthfully painted. "November Woods," No. 538, by Ruger Donoho, a wood interior with dead leaves thickly scattered among lichen-covered rocks—a realistic and straightforward piece of painting; "On the Moors," No. 410, by Robert A. Eichelberger, a simply composed and soundly painted picture; "A Winter Morning in the Catskills," No. 504, by Dubois F. Hasbrouck, a realistic transcript of morning sunshine on the snow in a pine wood; and "White Frost," No. 23, by H. G. Dearth, a well-painted effect of early winter, are other landscapes which should be mentioned among the good things in the exhibition. Mr. Shurtleff exhibits a picture called "In October Woods," No. 148, which has superior qualities of color, and is of his best work. Mr. Murphy, with "The Yellow Hour," in which we find the harmonious color scheme and the enveloping atmosphere which characterize his landscape work; Mr. Crane, with "Morning in June," No. 525, a bright and freshly painted picture, full of sunlight, and with a luminous and atmospheric sky; and Mr. Dewey, with an excellent work, "A Pasture Lot," No. 365, are well represented, and Mr. Edward Gay is seen at his best in a large picture of "Waving Grain," No. 526, in which the effect of light inundating the rolling fields, and the sunshine glittering on the billowy expanse of standing wheat blown by the wind, is realistically given. "On the Bozen Kill," No. 529, by Walter L. Palmer, is one of those effects of sunlight on snow which Mr. Palmer has been painting lately, and is one of his best; and "Westchester Hills," No. 400, by Homer D. Martin, is a large landscape in which the painter has been notably successful in the treatment of his subject by simple means and breadth of handling. "Evening," No. 141, and "Morning," No. 191, by Horatio Walker, are two pictures of landscape and cattle which deserve special notice, and "Fox Hounds," No. 434, by H. R. Poore, is a group of dogs which are excellent in character and remarkable for frank and direct methods of painting.

The pictures are much better hung than is usual at Academy exhibitions, and the general effect of the galleries is as complete and harmonious as it is possible to attain when the incongruous elements which necessarily compose the exhibition is taken into consideration. Both the Committee on Selection and the Hanging Committee are to be congratulated on their success in making the present exhibition the best the Academy has ever held.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

YOUNG FOLKS' CYCLOPÆDIA of { *Common Things...$2.50.* / *Persons and Places..$2.50*

HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, New York.

"One of the best books of the year. Such a novel is something to be grateful for. It makes goodness interesting; it idealizes realism; it shows love to be lovely and heroism possible."—*Critic, N. Y.*

MAXIMINA.

By DON ARMANDO PALACIO VALDES, author of 'The Marquis of Penalta.' 12mo, $1.50.

"The most charming novel that has crossed the Atlantic this year."—*Brooklyn Times.*

"A genuine triumph of rightly applied realism."—*Portland Press.*

"Where did Valdes learn this exquisite story of Maximina? A more lovely character it would indeed be difficult to find."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"The simplicity, beauty, and pathos of the main line of the story combine to give 'Maximina' a charm which belongs to very few works of fiction."—*Christian Union.*

"Stands conspicuously among the best books of the day."—*Utica Press.*

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO.,
13 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

HISTORICAL FICTION.

The "Quarterly Bulletin of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia" contains a chronological list of Historical Novels arranged by countries. In the numbers issued America, England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Spain, and Italy have been covered. The "Bulletin" is mailed, postpaid, for 20 cents a year.

SCHOOL BOOKS IN FOREIGN LANguages. Miscellaneous Books in Foreign Languages. Catalogues on application. Foreign Periodicals.
CARL SCHOENHOF, Importer, 144 Tremont St., Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s NEW BOOKS.

Before the Curfew,

And Other Poems, Chiefly Occasional. By OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES. 1 vol., 16mo, beautifully printed and bound, gilt top, $1.00; a limited number of the first edition, cloth, uncut edges, paper title, $1.50.

This tasteful volume contains the poems written by Dr. Holmes during the past eight years, since 'The Iron Gate' was published. They have the same freshness, wit, pathos, fitness to the occasion, felicity of phrase, and all the other charming qualities which have made his previous books an unfailing delight.

Metrical Translations and Poems.

By F. H. HEDGE, D. D., and Mrs. A. L. WISTER. 1 vol., 16mo, parchment paper cover, $1.00.

Dr. Hedge and Mrs. Wister have brought together in a tasteful little book the best German poems they have both translated into English verse, to which Dr. Hedge has added some excellent original poems.

The Puritan Age and Rule

IN THE COLONY OF THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY, 1629-1685. By GEORGE E. ELLIS, D. D., President of the Massachusetts Historical Society, author of "The Red Man and the White Man in North America," etc. 1 vol., 8vo, $3.50.

Dr. Ellis is distinguished as one of the most competent and diligent students of American history, especially of the Colonial era. In this volume he gives the results of his researches and studies concerning the motives which prompted the self-exile of the Puritans and the grounds on which they exercised their arbitrary rule in Massachusetts. Directly or indirectly the book challenges statements and criticisms which have appeared in some recent volumes dealing with the Puritans.

*** *For sale by all booksellers. Sent by mail, post-paid, on receipt of price by the publishers.*

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.,
BOSTON,
11 East Seventeenth St., New York.

Artistic

Wedding Presents

Etchings, tastefully framed, costing from $5.00 upward.

An illustrated and descriptive catalogue will be sent to any address on receipt of 10 cents. Visitors always welcome.

FREDERICK KEPPEL & CO.,
20 East 16th St. (Union Square), New York.

FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH, ITALIAN.

You can, by ten weeks' study, master either of these languages sufficiently for every-day and business conversation, by Dr. RICH. S. ROSENTHAL'S celebrated MEISTERSCHAFT SYSTEM. Terms $5.00 for books of each language, with privilege of answers to all questions, and correction of exercises. Sample copy, Part I, 25 cents. Liberal terms to teachers.
MEISTERSCHAFT PUBLISHING CO., BOSTON, MASS.

BROWN, BROTHERS & CO.,

59 WALL STREET.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

COMMERCIAL AND TRAVELLERS' CREDITS

Available in all parts of the World.

TO RENT—For use as a young ladies' school, "Buena," the seat of the late James B. Walles, Esq., near the lake shore, five miles north of the Chicago City Hall; the house is of Milwaukee pressed brick, covering 50x96 feet of ground, 2½ stories high, having twenty large rooms; it is situated in the centre of twelve acres of beautifully wooded land, and has sewer, water, and gas connections, and is surrounded by paved streets and stone sidewalks; It is in the centre of Buena Park, a new and beautiful suburb of Chicago, connected with the city by steam and horse-cars, one mile and a half north of Lincoln Park. The object of the proprietors in offering the place for the purpose named is to furnish the locality with a first-class school; a nominal rent would be asked of an experienced person whose reputation as a teacher and principal would be a guarantee of success.
Address,
R. A. WALLES,
164 La Salle St., Chicago, Ill.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED